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Full Name of Author — Nom complet de l'auteur
MELVIN P. DAVIS

Date of Birth — Date de naissance
1948 05 15

Country of Birth — Lieu de naissance
Canada

Permanent Address — Résidence fixe
R.R. 7
Pembroke, Ont.
K8A 6W8

Title of Thesis — Titre de la thèse
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Name of Supervisor — Nom du directeur de thèse
Dr. H. Janzen

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

PSYCHOLOGY OF POWER
AND
ITS RELATIONSHIP TO COUNSELLING

BY

Ⓒ MELVIN P. DAVIS

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1979

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled Psychology of Power and its Relationship to Counselling submitted by Melvin P. Davis in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Doctor of Philosophy in Counselling Psychology.

Supervisor

E. E. Fox

External Examiner

Date Oct 1/79

DEDICATION

To my wife,

who was always by my side, who provided support and encouragement at all times and who never ceased to provide the necessary strength needed to complete the research.

ABSTRACT

Fifty-two students and thirteen counsellors in four high schools were administered modified forms of the Social Power Inventory (Social Influence - Perception of Others, for the students, and Social Influence - Perception of Self, for the counsellors) to discover what power bases were attributed to high school counsellors. From these initial samples, twenty-six students and twelve counsellors were interviewed, as a method of establishing criterion validity for the written instruments.

Using French and Raven's (1959) definition of social power and their description of six power bases--referent power, reward power, legitimate power, coercive power, informational power and expert power--it was found that students attributed informational power, expert power and reward power to the counsellors. Expert power and informational power were attributed by the counsellors to themselves. High congruence in the power attributions between the two samples was shown in this study.

The two written instruments had adequate reliability (mean=.64) and consistency over time (test-retest correlation over a four-week time span, mean=.54). Concurrent validity between the written instruments and the oral interviews were shown to be adequate. The instruments thus proved to be adequate measures of the social power construct.

The study also showed that, contrary to Adler's belief, positive influence can be exerted over others. Eighty-nine percent of the students attributed positive influence to the counsellors while the counsellors felt that influence did occur during the counselling, but often unintentionally and indirectly. The power bases were found to interact with other bases and, perhaps, even collapse into each other in the perceptions of the target.

This research explored a relatively unexplored area of psychology, that of the psychology of social power as it related to counselling within a high school setting.

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CHAPTER ONE

THE DISSERTATION PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

In the review of the social power literature many authors have presented various theories and hypotheses about the influencing process. Strong (1968, 1970) has been perhaps one of the most important and prolific contributors to the field of social influence within a counselling setting. However, on the whole there seems to be lacking an objective method to study this phenomenon.

> The concepts of power, persuasion and influence have rarely been directly addressed in the school psychology literature.... The concepts seem to have been neglected because ... they are often associated with political power and authoritarianism. A related reason may be that the bulk of school psychologists in practice today were trained in a humanistic tradition, which emphasized the desirability, if not the necessity, of change emanating from within the individual. In this tradition, change attempts originated and directed by persons other than the one who is changing are seen as harmful and philosophically repugnant. (Martin, 1978, p. 49)

It seems incumbent upon the counsellors to be aware of the influencing process and of their perceived power. Without this knowledge, counsellors cannot really understand the impact of their influence leading to the clients' changes. In addition, the literature seems to convey the message that certain power bases or the use of certain resources by the counsellor seems to be more effective in certain situations than in others. The counsellors must attempt to match their resources to their clients in order to ensure optimal conditions for growth.

Adler was one of the first psychiatrists who emphasized power as having potential for both positive and negative manifestations, depending upon the person's personal interpretation of the social environment. Adler also realized that parents and therapists had, as one of their major functions, the responsibility to influence their children and/or clients in such a manner as to ensure that they developed a positive life-style, an accurate perception of the world and their place within that world. Positive social interest and social feeling are the major contributing factors to this positive adaptation.

Adlerians state that counselling can be viewed as a process in which the counsellor attempts to help another person, the client, to overcome feelings of discouragement and unhappiness. This encouragement process employs various strategies and resources which the counsellor uses to help the client grow from a "felt minus" situation to a "felt plus" situation.

This research attempts to explore the various resources or bases of power which a high school counsellor may use when counselling students. A review of the recent literature in both counselling and social psychology has revealed that, although many theories and hypotheses exist on the influence of counsellors on clients, very little empirical research has been completed which specifically examines the social power of counsellors. Empirical studies have been completed measuring conjugal and family power (Raven, Centers & Rodrigues, 1975; Smith, 1970; Soloman, 1961). Other studies have researched the power motive and the personality dimensions of power (Aldorno et al., 1950; McLelland, 1975; Winter, 1973). Further research has examined power within the classroom setting (Gold, 1958; Jamieson & Thomas, 1974). Oshry (1976a, 1976b, 1977), March (1965) and Tannenbaum (1968) have presented research relevant to the social power within organizations.

THE PROBLEM

> Behavior is a function of the person and the environment.... Hence the state of the person

and that of his environment are not independent of each other.

> How a child sees a given physical setting ... depends upon the developmental state and the characterisitics of that child and upon his ideology. (Lewin, 1951, p. 239)

Therefore, personal apperception seems to determine how the person sees the world and how the person proceeds to fulfill felt needs within that world.

Since counselling purports to help people become more adapted, more complete, more human, it then becomes another social influence with which the person must deal. Careful matching of the counsellors' influencing resources and the needs of the clients represents the crux of counselling.

The basic questions to which this research will address itself are:

1) do students in a high school environment attribute influence to the counsellors? Or, are the influence attempts by the counsellors recognized and attributed to them by the students?
2) what resources are attributed to the counsellors as a result of the counselling interaction?

The concept "resource" requires definition. In the present context:

> A resource refers to some definite act, past or present, which has the effect of either facilitating or hindering the locomotion of other persons or the group as a whole. (Levinger, 1959, p. 84)

Levinger (1959) further defines "resource" as having two aspects: actual resources, which have been used, and resource potential, which is perceived as being relevant but having not as yet been demonstrated by behavior.

This dissertation has chosen six such resources for analysis: reward, coercive, expert, legitimate, referent and informational power bases or resources.

3) what resources are combined or paired together by the students and the counsellors?

> The existence of one base of power in its pure form is relatively rare. Rather, we find that the various bases exist in differing combinations and configurations, with perhaps one basis being more dominant in one situation, another in a different situation. Furthermore, the influencing agent may make salient one basis of power through utilizing it.... The bases of power interact with one another. (Raven, 1965, p. 180)

OVERVIEW

The purpose of the dissertation has been outlined in Chapter One. Chapter Two first contains more detailed information on the Adlerian concept of power, the components of the striving for power, and a criticism of his position. The social psychological view of power is presented secondly, with the presentation of the definition of social power and the six bases of power used in the dissertation. Thirdly, the attribution process is studied and is related to social power. The final sections of Chapter Two cover school counselling and social power. Chapter Three outlines the research methodology and gives a description of the instruments. Chapter Four details the results of the study. Chapter Five presents a discussion of the results, the limitations of the research and topics for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RELATED LITERATURE

ADLERIAN PSYCHOLOGY

Historical Development of the Will to Power

Alfred Adler placed "power" as a central concept in his theory and was thus much maligned and criticized in the professional circles of the time (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). Adler borrowed from Nietzsche the concept of "will to power" and seemed to have readily accepted Nietzsche's understanding and definition of this concept (Kaufman, et al., 197?). Nietzsche defined the "will to power" as "self overcoming", stating that people preferred power over life, as people always wanted to transcend, to overcome, to grow in their experiences. True happiness, according to Nietzsche, results from maximum creativity. The highest form of power lies in the helping of others. Being capable of greater things--creativity and sublimation--these are the truly powerful actions of people (Kaufman, et al., 197?).

Historically, Adler did not arrive at Nietzsche's philosophical position until the latter part of his lifetime. From the beginning, Adler spoke of the unity of the organism and the confluence of drives (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). Adler envisioned a unitary system, through which all drives were coordinated by the "aggresive drive" (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). Adler soon realized that, due to his clinical setting, this drive would be characteristic of neurotic patients only. Hence, after studying "normal" people, he realigned his thinking by changing this superordinate drive to that of "masculine protest". Adler conceived of this drive as the striving to be strong and powerful in compensation for feeling unmanly and inferior (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). He thus began to define power as the process of overcoming feelings of inferiority in order to become truly complete and full as a person. To complete the transformation, Adler adopted Vaihinger's concept of "fiction" and coupled it with the striving for overcoming feelings of inferiority to derive the concept of fictional finalism or "striving for superiority".

Adler visualized man as being pulled by some fictional goal. "We cannot feel, think, will, or act without the perception of some goal" (Adler, 1925, p.3). All psychic phenomena then becomes understood only with this ultimate goal of superiority. Hence Adler moved from a drive theory to an organismic teleological theory. His position changed from inferiority feelings, to aggressive drive, to masculine protest, to fictional finalism, and finally to striving for superiority.

Toward the end of his lifetime, Adler described the striving for perfection, the striving for superiority or the striving for power, as an innate and general foundation of the development of every individual. Hence, life is a movement toward a goal--that of mastery of the social environment and perfection viewed through the person's apperceptive schema.

Striving for Power

Striving for superiority incorporates three basic components: (1) a striving motivation; (2) a fictitious goal and, (3) social interest. These three components interact to shape, form and guide each individual's personal and unique striving. However, it must be remembered that these three components form a unitary and consistent pattern of the personality.

1) Striving motivation. "To live means to grow" (Adler, 1973, p. 31).

> We must keep in mind that we are dealing here with something primary, something which adhered already to primordial life. It is always a matter of overcoming, of the existence of the individual and the human race, of establishing a favorable relationship between the individual and the surrounding world. This coercion to carry out a better adaptation can never end. Herein lies the

> foundation for our view of the striving for superiority. (Adler, 1973, p. 32)

This striving for overcoming can be related to Maslow's self-actualization concept, in that people are striving to become fully developed and fully actualized (Maslow, 1968). Roger's self-concept (1951) ressembles very closely Adler's motivational viewpoint--that of the organism's goal-directed behavior, its organized whole, its internal consistency and its phenomenal basis.

2) Fictitious goal. This striving is not an absolute concept, as it is constructed by each individual in an unique manner, in line with the apperceptive schema (Adler, 1959; 1973). Even though the striving for perfection is present in everyone, each person interprets it differently and behaves according to this interpretation.

3) Social interest.

> Social interest ... means feeling the whole, sub specie aeternitates, under the aspect of eternity. It means a striving for a form of community, which must be thought of as everlasting, as it could be thought of if mankind reached the goal of perfection, ... the ideal community of mankind, the ultimate fulfillment of evolution. (Adler, 1973, pp. 34-35)

Social interest is an inherent potentiality which must be consciously developed by the mother, the family, the schools and the society at large. Social interest is divided into two parts: social context, which is the child's subjective understanding of the environment, and social feeling, the empathic understanding of others (Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956). Not only must the social interest be cultivated within a specific environmental context, but the socializing agent must also consider the evaluative and the perceptual environment of the child. It should be noted that Adler's followers stress social interest as being the primary drive. They state that all human beings are social animals and all values are social values. The striving for power thus becomes the striving for competence, within the expression of social interest and social feeling.

Adler realized that, even though striving for perfection was innate and that social interest was inherent in every person, not all people were able to become truly "superior". He developed the concepts of private logic and common sense to explain the differences between normal and neurotic individuals (Dreikurs, 1973). Common sense refers to the normal person who develops social interest to its fullest. This person's behavior reflects a sense of perfection, a sense of power while always taking into account the greater social interest in mankind. Adler, of course, realized that many people did not develop this positive orientation toward life and society. Unable to respond to society in a socially acceptable way, some people develop faulty, private logic or private intelligence.

> Whether a person desires to be an artist, the first in his profession, or a tyrant in his home, to hold converse with God or humiliate other people; whether he regards his suffering as the most important thing in the world to which everyone must show obeisance, whether he is chasing after unattainable ideals or old deities, over-stepping all limits and norms, at every part of his way he is guided and spurred on by his longing for superiority, the thoughts of godliness, the belief in his special magical power. In his love, he desires to experience his power over his partner. (Adler, 1925, p. 7)

This "power" in fact is neurotic, anti-social and certainly destructive to mankind. Here the private ideals are not in accordance with personal power. Superiority means superiority over others, power over others, a striving for one's personal superiority (Adler, 1966).

In summary, Adler visualized power in two very distinct ways. On the positive side, power becomes the driving force, the dynamic motivator for human progress and evolution, the striving for superiority, for self-transcendence, which is fostered by social interest and social feeling. On the negative side, "power", because of the individual's creative fictional finalism, becomes power over others, power to elevate oneself over others, a means of ameliorating one's lifestyle to the detriment and, in fact, lowering of others. How a person chooses the positive or negative sides of power is dependent on the family and on the child's perception of that environment.

Criticism

Adler's description of the social aspect of power causes some concern. Adler views power over others as entirely negative, as it places one person over another, as in a relationship of servant to master. The present author feels that this is not necessarily true. While Adler does accept the fact that society and the family exert influence over children, for example, he does not state that this type of influence is positive and helpful to the developing individual. This type of influence or power can be construed as a force aimed at helping the growth and development of an individual to its fullest potential. In fact, growth is in large part dependent upon the influence of external agents, such as parents, for its fruition.

Children-parent, client-counsellor and teacher-student relationships can be viewed as examples of positive influence of an agent, or a person who possesses some knowledge and experience, on another person who seeks this knowledge or experience to further development and growth. This type of power or influence then becomes positive and growth promoting. As long as the agent in the relationship strives to promote growth and development in the target, then the influence exerted can be described as positive.

Power does not necessarily have to be viewed in the dichotomous manner as within the Adlerian framework. Influence and power can be envisaged as methods to enhance and promote the internal "power" or competence of people. Although Adler does stress the fact that social interest must be developed, he does not state how this would occur without some form of teaching or influence. One can thus believe that Adler accepted that influence need not always be negative. However, he did not state this view openly. If respect for the other individual is present within a relationship, the influence then can become growth-oriented and positive.

THE SOCIAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL VIEW OF POWER

Overview

Social power and influence have maintained a central position in social psychology literature. However, as

Schopler (1965) suggests, the power literature reveals many inherent problems in the study of this abstract concept. The many definitions, the many facets of the concept and the various theoretical frameworks, all point to a lack of cohesion and understanding in the field. This section therefore lists various definitions of social power. Then, a field theoretical approach, intimately tied to the Adlerian viewpoint, is studied in some depth as the operational definition of the dissertation and finally the relationship between social power and the counselling relationship concludes the chapter.

Definitions

Dahl (1956) defines power as a relationship among people, within which one person or group of persons get another person or group of persons to do something which they would not ordinarily do. The power relationship includes a source, domain or base, the means or instrument, the amount or extent and the range and scope of the powerholder over the target. Dahl lists two major properties of the power relation: (1) there must be a time lag, however small, from the actions of the actor who is said to exert power to the responses of the respondent; (2) there is no action at a distance--there must be some attempt by the actor to get the respondent to do something which would not normally be done.

Thibaut and Kelley (1959) define power as the possibility of one person affecting the reward-cost positions of the other person, and thereby influencing or controlling that person. They related the powerholder's power directly to the effects upon the target's outcomes. In fact, they use the word "control" as their main concept in their definition of power. They present two types of power: fate control ("if, by varying his behavior, A can affect B's outcomes regardless of what B does, A has fate control over B" (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959, p. 102)) and behavior control ("if by varying his behavior, A can make it desirable for B to vary his behavior too, then A has behavior control over B" (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959, p. 103)). Thibaut and Kelley define control as the ability to affect the likelihood of occurence of one or more behaviors (1959).

Winter (1973) defines social power as the capacity and/or action of one person (O) which could affect the behavior or emotions of another person (P) when and if O so desires. Hence, social power is the ability or capacity of O to produce, consciously or unconsciously, intended effects on the behavior or emotions of another person P. Winter described three dimensions to social power: relative inequality or the status or strength of O and P; situational interpretation; and, resistance.

Schopler and Layton (1974) define social power "as the induction of change in another person" (p. 34).

Lewin, in the field theoretical approach, defines the "power of b over a as the quotient of the maximum force which b can induce on a, and the maximum resistance which a can offer" (1951, p. 336).

> According to this conception, power refers to the induction of (psychological) forces by one entity b upon another a and to the resistance of this induction set up by a. Since the behavior of a is determined by the totality of forces operating upon him at any given time, the power of b over a is concerned only with those influences on a's behavior originating with b. (Cartwright, 1959, p. 188)

The five definitions presented above, although they differ in theoretical orientations, provide the major components of social power: a relationship between two people in which one is dependent upon the other; the powerholder who influences the target person; and, the target, who is subject to the influence. The target has the option in all of the above definitions to resist the influence attempt by the powerholder. Personality dimensions, status, rank, authority and many other factors are presented by the above authors as being critical to the understanding of power and influence. The key element, from the point-of-view of this dissertation, lies in the relationship between two people and in the attempts by one person to induce change in a dependent person.

Bases of Social Power

French (1956), French and Raven (1959), French and Snyder (1959) and Raven (1965) have presented a systematic and coherent study of six bases of social power.

> Social influence is defined ... as change in a person's cognitions, attitude, or behavior, which has its origin in another person or group.... We will use the word "power" to mean potential influence--or conversely, influence is kinetic power. (Raven, 1965, p. 371)

In many cases, as in psychotherapy and counselling, the changes that result involve dependence upon the source of the influence, the influencing agent.

The six bases of power can be understood by grouping them according to the type of influence being exerted.

I) Independent influence

Independent influence is the result of a basic change in cognitive elements through the use of information communicated by the powerholder. This base of power is related to the content of the message which creates a change in cognition in the target and thus becomes independent of the powerholder.

> 1) Informational power
>
> Informational power stems from the content of the persuasive communications from the influencing agent to the target--a careful and successful explanation of the necessity for change. (Raven, Centers & Rodrigues, 1975, p. 219)

Since this base is partly dependent upon the reasoning of the agent, the communication between the agent and the target must be studied. In fact, Walter (1963) and Mortensen (1972), for example, stress the fact that influence cannot occur without some form of communication.

Deutch and Gerard (1955) identified two types of social influence: informational social influence and normative social influence (which will be studied under the referent power base). "An informational social influence may be defined as an influence to accept information obtained from another as evidence about reality" (p. 629). Informational social influence is thus non-manipulative and is entirely dependent upon the receiver. It occurs when one individual uses the behavior of another person as assistance in determining thoughts or actions. Generally, the source of influence does not intentionally attempt to influence or manipulate the person being influenced. Informational social influence seems to have at its base two Adlerian concepts: information dependence and competence. Since children are almost entirely dependent upon adults for learning, this de facto places them in a dependent relationship situation. For socialization to occur, an imparting of knowledge to the child either in direct form through teaching or in indirect form through modeling seems to be the crucial factor. People desire to appear competent, they desire to be right, and they desire to be liked. In order to accomplish this, they become dependent upon others to provide the benchmarks for behavior in certain situations. People tend to take their cues from others and they tend to model their behavior upon the information they glean from them (Asch, 1951, 1956; Bandura, 1971). This strong motive contributes to the working of informational social influence, as "it is this striving to be right that motivates people to pay close attention to what other people are doing" (Aronson, 1976, p. 90).

Thus, whenever a person feels uncertainty in a situation, in order to avoid feelings of incompetence and to increase their knowledge, the person seeks out information. "The natural response to ambiguity is to seek clarifying information" (Jones and Gerard, 1967, p. 15).

II) Public-dependent influence

Two types of social influence are categorized here: reward and coercive power. These two bases are dependent upon the necessity for the influencing agent to observe the target for the influence to actually occur (French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 1965).

2) Reward power

> Reward power is defined as power whose basis is the ability to reward. The strength of the reward power of (the agent) increases with the magnitude of the rewards which (the target) perceives that (the agent) can mediate for him. Reward power depends on (the agent's) ability to administer positive valences. The strength of reward power also depends upon the probability that (the agent) can mediate the reward, as perceived by (the target). (French & Raven, 1959, p. 156)

Raven (1965) emphasized that it is not the objective ability of the influencing agent to mediate the rewards, but rather the potential reward, as perceived by the target. Hence this power base rests in the target's belief that the agent will do something in return--reward the target--if the target complies.

3) Coercive power

> Coercive power of (the agent over the target) stems from the expectation on the part of the target that he will be punished by the agent if he fails to conform to the influence attempt. (French & Raven, 1959, p. 157)

Punishment here could mean physical punishment, the withdrawal of affection and love, hate, disapproval, rejection and dislike. These personal coercions can be every bit as powerful as the many impersonal coercions, such as the firing of a worker on other workers (Raven, 1974). Coercive power is based on the target's belief that the agent can and will use punishment for noncompliance.

III) Private-dependent influence

4) Expert power

"This source stems from the attribution of superior knowledge or ability to the influencing agent" (Raven, 1965, p. 374). Concepts such as competence, credibility and skill are closely related and allied skills (Schopler, 1965). Deutch and Gerard (1955) state that informational social influence is highly dependent upon the target's acceptance of another's behavior as being a valid source of information. In essence, expertise lies in the faith the target has in the influencing agent. The target believes that the influencing agent is competent and can be trusted to be an accurate source of influence within a particular sphere of knowledge. Expert power is limited to a perceived area of expertise and, as well, does not exert much influence outside that sphere.

5) Referent power

> The referent power of (the agent over the target) has its basis in the identification of (the target) with (the agent). By identification, we mean a feeling of oneness of (the target) with (the agent), or a desire for such an identity. If (the target) is a person toward whom (the target) is highly attracted, (the target) will have a desire to become closely associated with (the agent). If (the agent) is an attractive group, (the target) will have a feeling of membership or a desire to join. (French & Raven, 1959, p. 161)

This power occurs when the target uses the influence agent as a frame of reference against which self-evaluations can be made. Statements like "I am like him" or "I would prefer to be like him" tend to characterize referent power. Since this identification forms the basis of this power, the client wants to believe what the agent does (Raven, 1974).

This power base is dependent upon two major concepts: interpersonal attraction and psychological consistency.

Interpersonal attraction is determined by three major characteristics: (a) attitude similarity, as it tells us that others are seeing the world as we do and it is thus reassuring to obtain social validation of our otherwise vulnerable views; (b) physical appearance, as people tend to choose one another on the basis of similar degrees of attractiveness; (3) personal evaluation, as one person tends to be attracted to someone who is positively reinforcing and one tends to stay away from someone who evaluates negatively--people like those who evaluate them positively and dislike those who evaluate them negatively (Baron, Byrne & Griffith, 1974).

The above characteristics lead us to be attracted to someone who tends to share our beliefs and attitudes about the environment. This creates psychological consistency, as we can then share our views and receive support.

> Under laboratory conditions, attraction toward a peer is found to a positive linear function of proportion of similar attitudes. Agreement about important issues has a greater effect than agreement about trivial issues, but only when the two levels of importance may be contrasted at the same time. (Baron, Byrne & Griffith, 1974, p. 70)

6) Legitimate power

Legitimate power is defined as that power which stems from internalized values in (the client) which dictate that (the influencer) has a legitimate

> right to influence (the client) and that (the client) has an obligation to accept this influence.
> (French & Raven, 1959, p. 159)

French and Raven (1959) list three basic areas of legitimate influence: (1) cultural values, which allocate characteristics in the powerholder to prescribe behavior to the target, such as age, intelligence or cast; (2) acceptance of social structure, thus enabling the superior officer in the authority hierarchy to exert influence as a right; (3) designation by a legitimizing agent, such as members of Parliament or department heads. The three above factors create a legitimate range of power for the person holding office.

Legitimate power is based in the target's values, as the legitimacy of the powerholder must both be perceived and accepted as legitimate.

Legitimate power grows out of the target's acceptance of a role structured relationship with the influencing agent. This acceptance is obvious in highly structured social organizations, such as the military, and less obvious in unstructured situations, such as the legitimate power of the experimenter over the subject (Milgram, 1964, 1965).

Summary of the bases of power

Social power is defined as the potential for inducing forces in other persons toward acting or changing in a given direction (Lippitt et al., 1960, p. 746). Social power is based upon a relationship between two or more people, within which one or more people are dependent upon another person. The powerholder has certain resources or power bases with which resultant influence can be exerted. These resources must be intimately matched to the need-dependence of the target (Cartwright, 1965).

French and Raven (1959) and Raven (1974) have experimentally described six such power bases:

1. coercive power, based upon the target's belief that the influencer can and will punish for noncompliance;
2. reward power, based on the target's expectation that the influencer will do something in return--reward the target for compliance;
3. expert power, stemming from the target's belief that the influencer has superior knowledge--knowledge of what sort of behavior on the target's part which will lead to the best outcome;
4. referent power, based upon identification or desired identification of the target with the agent;
5. legitimate power, based on the right of the agent to influence the target; and,
6. informational power, based upon the intrinsic persuasiveness of the influencing agent's message.

Related Research

The use of coercive power tends, as a rule, to increase the resistance of the target toward compliance. Zipf (1960), French, Morrison and Levinger (1960), Coch and French (1948) and Horai and Tedeschi (1975) tested the above hypothesis and arrived at essentially the same conclusion: coercive power leads to dependent change and the degree of dependence varies with the level of observability of the target's conformity. Although there was high resistance to the use of this base, the targets did conform. The amount of conformity was found to be related to the strength of the punishment force. However, the greater the resistance, the less liking for the powerholder--there was a definite correlation between liking and coercion.

Raven and French (1958a, 1958b) studied the legitimate power base. They found that perceptions of the extent of legitimacy were positively associated both with ratings of the justifiability of the superior exercising power and the supervisor's degree of attractiveness. Legitimacy has been found to be intimately tied to the specific range of legitimacy perceived by the target. Should the influencer attempt to exert influence outside this perceived range, there would be a decrease in the legitimate power of the authority figure and in the degree of attractiveness of the influencer (French et al., 1960; Raven & French, 1958a, 1958b).

Referent power is especially great when the target is attracted to the influencer (Byrne, Griffith & Golightly, 1966; Darley, 1966; Dell, 1973; Hurwitz et al., 1968; Merluzzi, Merluzzi & Kaul, 1977; Stapleton et al., 1975; Walker & Heyns, 1962). These studies confirm the hypothesis that attraction, similarity and liking are very important variables in referent power and in interpersonal relations. Zander and Curtis (1962) showed that the target's private cognitions were more effectively modified by social pressures originating in the influencer when these pressures were based on referent power than when they were based on coercive power.

Kane et al. (1976) showed that behavioral trust is displayed when the actor relies upon another person for information about certain states. When the information directly related to the needs and dissonance of the target, trust in the information was established. Festinger (1957) has established the theory of cognitive dissonance which supports the needs-information-influence model. He stressed cognitive change as being very important within the dissonance model.

Many studies have examined the interaction of the bases of power. These studies stress the fact that each base interacts with each other base, although one or two primary bases often emerge as dominant. Many of these studies have previously been mentioned: French and Raven (1958b) studied legitimacy and coercion; Zipf (1960) and Brigante (1958) examined reward and coercion; Zander and Curtis (1962) studied referent and coercion; and, Litman-Adizes et al. (1978) examined all of the bases in relation to compliance.

Litman-Adizes et al. (1978) found the sharpest differences between coercive power and informational power. Coercive power was found to be generally less effective and less desirable, leading to public dependent change, requiring surveillance and leading to external attribution and poor evaluation of the influencer. Informational power was found to lead to private acceptance of change, internal attribution and more positive evaluation of the influencer. Reward, referent and expert power generally fall in between the other two in effectiveness and desirability. The authors found that, contrary to previous research, legitimate power seemed to have effects very similar to coercive power, with surveillance as being very important. Both legitimate and coercive power seem to have the same effect--once the surveillance was removed, the recommended behavior is likely to be rejected and especially devalued. The use of reward power requires surveillance for initial compliance. However, reward power soon leads to acceptance as a secondary effect, and does not require surveillance later on.

Referent, informational and reward power were perceived as most conducive to a good personal climate. Coercive and legitimate were seen as leading to low mutual evaluation of competence and low liking, as coercion is associated with the devaluation of the target as unworthy.

Raven, Centers and Rodrigues (1975) sampled 776 respondents, 410 wives and 337 husbands, with regard to conjugal decision-making, the bases of social power, satisfaction of marriage, authoritarianism, internal-external control and demographic variables. The authors found that sex, ethnic identification, age, education ✓ and social class affected conjugal power. The bases of power also differ sharply with the domain, the action with respect to which influence is attempted. Marital factors, values in marriage and authoritarianism are also factors related to conjugal power. The major base of power being used in the sample was referent, followed by expert. However, the bases varied according to certain domains and/or functions.

ATTRIBUTION PROCESS

> ... The attribution process may be characterized as follows: during the course of interaction, person A observes specific behaviors performed by person B. At the same time person A has, from past experience, a storehouse of knowledge about behavior of people in general as well as personal knowledge. In order to be able to comprehend all the discrete bits of data about behavior, A has some scheme of organization that allows him to chalk up many instances of behavior as similar in some sense and to store them all under one category. The category may take the form of a trait that he attributes to a person who performs these acts consistently .... The behaviors are attributed to a personal characteristic of the individual. The attribution process is essentially a matching between observed behaviors and categories or concepts supplied by past experience of the observer. (De Charms, 1968, p. 283)

This process involves matching three areas: entities which correspond to things in the environment; persons who interact with entities; and, the various modalities of interaction and the times at which these interactions may occur (Kelley, 1967). Kelley

(1967) presents four specific criteria for external validity of the phenomenology of attribution: (1) distinctiveness: the impression is attributed to the thing if it uniquely occurs when the thing is present and does not occur in its absence; (2) consistency over time: each time the thing is present, the individual's reaction must be the same or nearly so; (3) consistency over modality: his reaction must be consistent even though the mode of interaction with the thing varies; (4) consensus: attributes of external origin are experienced the same way by all observers.

For example, for a student to attribute the quality of "being good, helpful and open" to a counsellor, the four above criteria must be present. Thus, the impression of "being good" must be present when the student sees the counsellor; this impression must continue and remain relatively stable over time and it must be present in the office, the halls and even in the community. As well, this attribute of "being good" must be shared by a majority of students, who agree with the student in the attribution. "In general, we might say that the subjective criteria for the possession of valid knowledge about the external world are distinctiveness of response coupled with consistency and consensus" (Kelley, 1967, p. 196).

How can an attribution to a personal disposition

> be distinguished with subjective validity from an attribution of some other source? ... An event is attributed to whatever conditions (be they entities, persons or situations) vary with the presence or absence of the event. Thus the attribution is not a binary one, since the environment is now partitioned into stimuli (entities) and context (time/modality) since an essential aspect of the process is the comparison of one's own experience with the experience of other perceivers. (Shaver, 1975, p. 59)

This variation, then, of cause and effect leads to a basic choice between external attribution and internal (self) attribution.

> The attribution to the external rather than to the self requires that I respond differentially to the things, that I respond consistently, over time and modality, and that I respond in agreement with a consensus of other person's responses to it .... If these conditions are not met, there is indicated an attribution to self, or to some juxtaposition of circumstances. (Kelley, 1967, pp. 194-195)

External versus internal attribution has been studied by Rotter and associates (Mirels, 1976; Mirels, 1970; Rotter, 1966). Their focus has been on the attribution of causality. If the individual perceives that a reward follows from, or is contingent upon, personal behavior or attributes, then internal locus of control will be attributed. If, on the other hand, the reward is perceived as being controlled by forces outside the person or if it may occur independently of personal actions, then external control is assumed (Rotter, 1966). This dichotomous conception seems to be lacking in terms of attribution theory. Rotter and associates do not present the criteria of consistency over time or modality nor consensus to explain exactly how the attribution is, in fact, awarded. Although locus of control has often been used in research, Janzen and Beeken (1973) state that it must be expanded to include other constructs and that the constructs themselves need to be clarified and refined.

Attribution of power. Attribution related to power involves a judgement about how much of the change in the target was caused by the agent. "The perception of interpersonal power is thus of the general attributional problem of specifying how a perceiver allocates the origins, or causes, of a particular effect or effects" (Schopler & Layton, 1974, p. 35).

Schopler and Layton (1974) propose that two major components determine the attribution of social power. The first component is based on the probability generated by the target's state at time 1 with respect to the state at time 2. Time 1 refers to the starting point immediately preceeding the intervention, while time 2 refers to any subsequent state of the target. The second component is based on the probabilities generated by the influencer's intervention with respect to the target's state at time 2. The resources of the influencer would increase this probability. Therefore, the target will attribute power to the influencer if change occurred from the start of the intervention to the conclusion.

Kaplowitz (1978) attempted to synthesize various attribution theories, in order to arrive at a systematic understanding. He summarizes as follows:

1) the consequences of power attribution are more directly related to the attribution of potential power than to the attribution of exercised power.

2) where the power of a dominant party is based on its ability to apply military or economic sanctions, the more powerful it is thought to be, the more compliance it will receive.

3) where the power of the dominant party depends on the legitimacy it is accorded, appearing too powerful will encourage demands for change.

Litman-Adizes et al. (1978) showed that the use of referent, informational and reward power were more effective in inducing compliance. Legitimate and coercive power were the least effective toward inducing any change in the target's will. Informational power, as well, led to a favorable attitude toward the behavioral change and high likelihood to continual use of the outcome without surveillance, in addition to positive interpersonal relationships. Coercive and legitimate power, associated with the attribution for compliance to the influencer, were detrimental to private acceptance of change and to interpersonal relationships. Compliance following the use of referent and reward power was largely attributed to the target and was felt to be conducive to positive interpersonal relationships. However, they were less effective than informational power for private acceptance of change.

Raven and Kruglanski (1970) discuss the bases of power in terms of their having either a "launching effect" (or attributed to self) or a "releasing effect" (that is, attributed to the influencing agent who provided the opportunity for the target to change under personal power). They assume that influence which results from informational power would be interpreted as a "releasing effect", with the target changing voluntarily, as the information is seen as bringing about the change. Change following high reward or coercive power is interpreted as a "launching effect" or resulting from the reinforcing nature of the social demands. Legitimate power can assume to have a "launching effect" as less volition is attributed to the person who has been influenced. Expert power would be more similar to informational power and more likely to be interpreted as stemming from the decision of the target. Referent power, although less clear, could operate as a "releasing effect". Raven and Kruglanski stress that "more careful empirical evidence is required to explore these relationships" (1970, p. 83).

Kelley (1967) also discusses the bases of power and attributional effects. With respect to informational dependence, he suggests using (a) differentiation and (b) stability of attributions as an index of the individual's state of information. The more consistent this information is, the more stable will the attributions be. Thus, person A is informationally dependent upon person B, if B can raise A's level of information higher than can be attained from other available sources. Person A will seek information from B if A believes that B's information can raise A's level higher than can information from other sources.

> Person A will be more susceptible to influence the more variable his prior attribution has been. Attribution instability (and thus, susceptibility

> to influence) will be high for a person who has (a) little social support, (b) prior information that is poor or ambiguous, (c) problems difficult beyond his capabilities, (d) views that have been disconfirmed because of their inappropriateness or nonveridicality and (e) other experiences engendering low self-confidence. (Kelley, 1967, p. 200)

Expert power or expertness can be defined as the communicator's contact or mediation of the relevant external causal factors (Kelley, 1967). "An expert is one who ... is capable of attaining a high information level in his own attributions and ... of making attributional statements presumed to have high validity" (Kelley, 1967, p. 204).

In summary, attribution theory rests on three basic assumptions: (1) the assumption of minimal determinism--behavior is determined in some way; (2) perceivers, themselves, have some reason to engage in a search for the causes of active behavior; (3) the underlying causes of an actor's behavior can be inferred with some degree of validity from an examination of his actions (Shaver, 1975, pp. 57-58). The bases of power can be analyzed in terms of attributions the target makes regarding the covariation of distinctiveness, consistency over time, consistency over modality and consensus, in relation to the influencing act.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF POWER IN A COUNSELLING SETTING

School Counselling

Aubrey (1977), in his article outlining the historical development of guidance in the United States, stated that guidance emerged around 1900, under the influence of Parsons. Vocational guidance, being the primary focus at this time, soon merged with testing and trait-factor psychology. During the 1950's, with the pervasive influence of Carl Rogers, guidance developed into counselling the whole student. However, with this increased emphasis on counselling, the guidance movement began to experience an identity crisis.

In Canada, although heavily influenced by American ideology, guidance developed on a provincial, rather than national level (Van Hesteren, 1971). Ford in Nova Scotia, Saffran and Christensen in Alberta, Parmenter and Beattie in Ontario, among others, are considered as the founders of counselling and guidance. Psychology, intellectual assessment and education heavily influenced the guidance movement (Van Hesteren, 1971).

Today, guidance and counselling vary from province to province. For example, the role of the counsellor in British Columbia is to balance the career, educational guidance and personal aspects of counselling.

Heavy emphasis is placed on the involvement of all teachers within the school in the counselling team (Walsh, 1978). In Quebec, counsellors are organized in a professional organization similar to that of psychologists. Their aim is the global development of each individual within a specific environment (Langlois, 1978). In Alberta, the emphasis of the 1970's has shifted again with school counsellors now placing more emphasis on vocational planning, career development and career guidance activities while maintaining, as best they can, their involvement in personal counselling and related activities (Mott, 1978). Essentially the same can be said for Ontario (Blake, 1978).

Traditionally there have been three dimensions to the school counsellor's role: counselling, consulting and guidance services (Hassard & Costar, 1977). The counselling function can further be divided into four areas: vocational counselling, academic counselling, personal counselling and social counselling (Hassard & Costar, 1977; Leviton, 1977).

Confusion is prevalent regarding the exact role of school counsellors. They are often viewed as undermining pupil control in terms of discipline (Willower, Hoy & Eidell, 1976). Leviton (1977) states that in terms of the public, guidance functions are far more important to the students. Turgeon (1973) and Van

Hesteren and Zingle (1977) disagree, stating that counselling in the school must become more developmental and must act as a humanizing force within the educational system.

Whether this role confusion is ever solved remains to be seen. However, the four domains of counselling within the school require essentially the same interpersonal skills and counselling skills in order to be effective and helpful. The counselling process and the various counsellor/counselling skills will now be examined.

The Counselling Process

In Adlerian psychotherapy and counselling, the establishment and the maintanance of a good therapeutic relationship is the first step in the process of counselling (Mosak & Dreikurs, 1973). The major variables in the establishment of this relationship are seen as (1) a friendly relationship between equals; (2) cooperation, requiring the alignment of goals; and, (3) the process to increase the education of the patient. Mutual respect, positive regard and cooperative effort establish the type of relationship necessary for change. However, the authors add that the therapeutic relationship possesses three further factors: faith, hope and love (Mosak & Dreikurs, 1973).

Faith is described as the confidence the client has that the therapist is both able and willing to help, even before treatment is sought. Should the patient be forced into treatment, then the therapist must build this feeling of rapport before any therapeutic change can be effected.

> The therapist's own faith in himself, the therapist's appearance of wisdom, strength and assurance, the therapist's willingness to listen without criticism: all may be utilized by the patient to strengthen his faith. (Mosak & Dreikurs, 1973, p. 53)

Hope tends to lead people to move in the direction of making their anticipations come true. Therefore, through encouragement, the therapist keeps the patient's hope elevated. The therapist's "expression of faith in the patient, his noncondemnation of him, and his avoidance of being overly demanding may give the patient hope" (Mosak & Dreikurs, 1973, p. 53).

Love shows the patient that the therapist cares. Merely by treating the patient, by empathic listening, by "working through" the patient's concerns, all convey the message to the patient that the therapist cares.

The factors cited above (self-disclosures, faith, perceived similarities of attitudes, values and experience, hope, love, mutual respect and caring) all combine and interact to create the therapeutic relationship between the counsellor and the client.

These factors establish the basis of the client's identification with the therapist as a frame of reference against which the client evaluates some aspect of personal behavior and cognitions.

The counselling process can be presented in much the same manner as Kipnis (1974) presents the sequential description of the power act.

Step 1: The power motivation

Adler, as stated in this chapter, would suggest 2 two possible motivations: the positive striving for superiority, which naturally leads people to help those who seek help and leads people in need to seek help; and, the negative aspect which would be to gain satisfaction from manipulating and influencing others. In the latter instance, the powerholder derives satisfaction from perceiving that outcomes were shaped for others by the dominance and control exerted. Kipnis uses an internal motivation to the provision of influence. However, social power is relational and influence is exerted through the use of resources to increase the competence of the target. Thus, an Adlerian counsellor would attempt to establish the relationship, then influence the client toward growth and change through the use of resources.

Step 2: Resistance from the target

Since growth is often painful and difficult, the client will usually resist the counsellor's influence attempt. Although a willing client in most aspects, the decision to change and to grow is often delayed, ignored or simply refused. Hence the counsellor must then employ the available resources in order to secure the necessary change in the client. Positive regard, empathy and congruence would certainly contribute toward the encouragement of the client. Change can signify simply the search for more information or the quest for vocational and/or academic counselling. The counsellor will offer the information; however, it is up to the client to either accept or reject this information, depending upon the client's apperceptive schema at that time.

Step 3: Resources

Kipnis, in his model, lists personal and institutional resources of the powerholder. Counsellors, in addition to these resources, could use the six bases of power: reward, coercive, referent, informational, expert and legitimate power bases in the therapeutic process.

The choice of the power base by the influencing agent would depend on the following factors: likelihood of lasting change, cost of the choice of each base, desire for continued dependence, distrust of others, frustration, hostility or displacement of aggression, legitimacy and evaluation by third parties, self-esteem and the need for power (Raven & Kruglanski, 1970).

Step 4: Region of inhibition

Since the selection of the resources by the counsellor is tailored to the client and tends to fit the client's needs, the counsellor must now subject the choice to ethical, moral and potential outcomes scrutiny. In other words, the choice of the counsellor resources must fit the needs of the client, must be appropriate within the ethical and moral framework of the counsellor and the institution within which the counselling occurs and the overall culture surrounding the counselling relationship.

Step 5: Means of influence

Cartwright (1965) states that the powerholder may exploit a base of power by (a) exercising physical control over the target or the target's environment; (b) exercising control over the gains and costs that the target will actually experience; (c) exercising control over the information available to the target; or, (d) making use of the target's attitudes about being influenced. As in step 3--resources--external restraints prevail upon the counsellor's choice of means. The counsellor's skills in interpersonal relationships, the knowledge of psychology and education and the communication skills would serve as the primary means chosen by the counsellor. However, this is relative to the institution and the counsellor's philosophical and psychological biases.

Step 6: The target's response to the influence attempt.

The client, through the intervention and influence of the counsellor, is helped to overcome difficulties. The client becomes superior, thus modifying the self-concept and lifestyle. Should the counselling be unsuccessful, then the whole process is restarted, as the counsellor misperceived the needs of the client or chose the wrong means. Because of the counsellor's misperceptions or inaccurate choice, the client resisted the influence attempt and was thus not helped by the relationship.

Step 7: Consequences for the powerholder

Since the counsellor functions mostly as an educator and catalyst for change, the change in the counsellor would be minimal. Personal growth, new knowledge and excitement over the interaction would probably be the major changes incurred. The client however, if the intervention was successful, would undergo changes in cognitions, attitudes, in self-concept and social interest.

To summarize Kipnis' model, the client enters into the counselling relationship. Using the client's needs as the basis for the influencing attempt, the counsellor matches the available resources to the perceived needs of the client. The method of influencing varies according to the resources available and the region of inhibition. Should the counsellor properly match the needs and the resources, then change will occur. Should there be a mismatch, then the counsellor chooses either to restart the process or to desist.

Most psychotherapy and counselling would involve a similar process: a client seeks out a counsellor or is referred to one; the counsellor has available certain resources or power bases and understands the region of inhibition. During the interaction, the counsellor becomes aware of the client's felt needs and then proceeds to match these needs to the resources. The method of influence would be a function of the resources available and the region of inhibition. The process of social influence could occur during the counselling interviews or could at a different time. The acceptance or rejection would manifest itself in the client's attempts at behavior change.

Counselling and Bases of Power

Informational power plays an important role in school counselling. Vocational and academic counselling are almost entirely the imparting of knowledge to the students. School counsellors attempt to persuade certain students to take certain actions for their benefit. For example, the counsellor's attempt to stop a student from skipping classes could involve much persuasion.

> Counsellors can enhance their influence on clients by exposing clients to information such as books, articles, and alternative communicators that emphasize the interpretations and relationships they desire their clients to adopt. Psychological tests with their presumed objectivity and certainty are particularly important sources of informational power. (Strong & Matross, 1973, p. 30)

Reward power has been used extensively by behavioral counsellors. The behavior therapists tend to use rewards or contingency reinforcements as their primary tools in therapy (Hergenhahn, 1976; Horton & Turnage, 1976).

> The (behavior) therapist possesses ways in which the target behavior can be eliminated. These might include: (1) identifying and eliminating stimuli that regularly produce the target behavior; (2) identifying and avoiding responses that positively reinforce the target behavior; (3) prescribe a regime which negatively reinforces unwanted behavior ... while ... rewarding more

desirable forms of behavior. (Mushin, 1977, p. 399)

Behavior therapy, with its use of rewards, focuses on a specific behavior of the individual for remediation. The contingency is thus intimately tied to the performance of a behavior which will be rewarded by the therapist. Since reward power does lead to private dependent change without the need for continued supervision, this base can be very helpful in the initial stages of the counselling. For example, to increase rapport and communication, a counsellor might change a student's timetable or do another favor. This initial rewarding could lead to a more constructive and positive counselling relationship.

Coercive power would seem to be the least acceptable base of influence for the counsellor to employ. Threats of suspension and punishment for skipping are sometimes used by counsellors. Usually, however, the results are discouraging and often lead to refusal and negative interpersonal attraction. Behavior therapists do use coercion as a form of treatment, as in aversive conditioning, for example. However, these techniques are, for the most part, not employed within a school setting.

Expert power derives its influence from counsellor expert resources. Knowledge and skills that help the clients achieve whatever goals they may be seeking would fall under this resource base. Such knowledge would include understanding of the psychological process, interpersonal relations, vocational choice, career patterns and psychological tests. All these areas of knowledge reflect the counsellor's training and experience (Strong & Matross, 1973).

Other factors enhancing the expertise of counsellors would be the public image as a helpful change agent, the physical surroundings of the office, the counsellor's confidence, rationality and apparent knowledge while interacting with the client (Strong & Matross, 1973).

Strong (1968), Strong and Schmidt (1970a, 1970b) have investigated counsellor expertise and arrived at the following conclusions: (a) communicator credibility depends upon the source of valid assertions (expertness) and the degree of confidence the client has in the communicator (trustworthiness); (b) expertness is partly based upon objective evidence (diplomas, titles) and partly upon reputation as an expert; (c) the interview structure gives evidence of the counsellor's expertness, if the structure is perceived by the client; (d) greater responsiveness to the client; and, (e) perceived logic and rationality of the counsellor's questions.

Referent power would seem to be a major base for counsellors.

> ... Persons, once finding points of similarity, assume more similarity than in reality exists and seek continually to expand the scope and range of similarity through constant reappraisal of their own position and penetrating examination of apparent dissimilarities. Because of this, influence stemming from a reference base is a consequence of exposure of views, attitudes, and behavior without formal or obvious attempts to influence. (Strong & Matross, 1973, p. 29)

Since clients' distress is often the result of perceived inconsistency between the clients' behavior and values (Strong, 1968), they seek out those counsellors with whom to assess their inconsistencies (Festinger, 1954; Strong, 1970).

> Depending on the similarity of basic values and attitudes, counsellors can be referents by which clients can (in their perception) increase their psychological consistency. If the counsellor and the client discover similarities in world views, clients can be expected to adopt the counsellor interpretations, attitudes and reactions because of the counsellor's presumed greater consistency in applying the shared values. (Strong & Matross, 1973, p. 29)

Counsellors develop a referent base of power by self-disclosing relevant values, attitudes and experiences which tend to be shared by the client. The self-disclosures tend to enhance the client's perceptions of the counsellor's empathy, warmth and congruence (Murphy & Strong, 1972; Schmidt & Strong, 1971; Strong & Dixon, 1971; Tedeschi. 1974).

Jourard (1971) defines self-disclosure as the process through which one makes oneself known to another. Some optimum degree of self-disclosure is necessary for satisfactory personal relationships, while inability to disclose oneself appropriately to others is a factor in psychological and physical illness. Barrell and Jourard (1976), in their research, conclude that the crucial factor which apparently determines whether or not we are willing to disclose to someone whom we like seems to be how the consequences of the disclosure are imagined. Although there is more willingness to disclosure to someone we like because of the meaningfulness of the relationship, there is also fear that much would be lost if this relationship is permanently damaged by the self-disclosure. They conclude that the loss of self-worth and the feeling of rejection seem to be the most vulnerable areas of perceived loss.

Legitimate power would seem dependent on the role and the functions performed by the school counsellors. They are designated by the school adminstration as "counsellors"; teachers refer difficult students to counsellors for help; parents usually turn to counsellors for help with difficulties being experienced by the children; counsellors usually are asked to write letters of reference for students; counsellors usually deal with university and college application forms, employment forms and marks. In other words, counsellors are established as legitimate helping persons within the school. This legitimacy is attributed to the counsellors in the vocational and academic counselling areas (Leviton, 1977). However, they are not viewed by all as persons who legitimately can be helpful with personal and social problems (Hassard & Costar, 1977).

Tradition, internalized values, present expectations of others, role prescriptions have the nature of "oughtness". Counsellors and psychologists have legitimate cultural and institutional roles as givers of help in personal, social and vocational areas (Strong, 1968).

Social Power and the Counsellor

The counsellor attempts to influence the clients to attain the goal of counselling (Strong, 1968).

... There is strong evidence that counsellors

> do influence clients' behavior--indeed, it is easily argued that if counsellors do not expect to change behavior, they have little reason to be in business. We seem to be discussing the degree and manner in which one individual exercises influence over another, rather than whether he does--or should--exert any influence. (Gometz & Parker, 1968, p. 439)

Since counselling involves the matching of counsellor resources with the needs of the client, an accurate assessment of the needs of the client and the goals of therapy need to be undertaken in order to properly complete this matching process. Merluzzi et al. (1977) developed an equation to represent this matching process: behavior change equals counsellor power base and characteristics plus client need and characteristics plus opposition and resistance. They state that the counsellor has only two power bases: expert power (special knowlege and abilities to meet the client's needs with least amount of cost) and referent power (similarities, such as attitudes, values and shared viewpoints about certain topics, between the counsellor and the client which are used to resolve psychological inconsistencies). Unfortunately, they did not research this hypothesis.

Dell (1973) states:

> The counsellor's social power on clients resides in the client's perception of correspondence between his needs and the counsellor's resources. The social power arising from this perceived need-structure correspondence activates a force for compliance with the counsellor's suggestions. (p. 399)

Dell further states that counsellors have basically two major power bases: expert power, which resides in the client's perception of the counsellor as possessing special knowledge and abilities that will help the client meet needs, and referent power, which resides in the client's perceptions of the counsellor as a "co-oriented" other, that is, a source of social comparison.

Two theoretical papers state that the counsellor's power bases are restricted to informational power, expert power and referent power. The first paper by Lambert (1973) hypothesizes that expertise and information are the major sources of influence of counsellors. Expertise lies mainly in the assessment of individual differences and the identification of special educational needs and program development. Through the counsellor's persuasiveness and knowledge, the impact of the counsellor's expertise can be significant. The second paper, by Martin (1978), stresses that expert and referent power bases should become the framework for consultation. Since expert power is attributed to a small range and since attempts to influence outside that range decrease the power, psychologists should develop a small number of content areas of real expertise and they should then limit the consultation to this expertise. Referent power is well within the grasp of counsellors. Through their training in interpersonal skills and their natural inclination toward interpersonal sensitivity, empathy and nonevaluative caring, counsellors possess the ingredients to develop referent power as a major base of influence. Since referent power has a wide range, affecting behavior, attitudes and beliefs in a number of areas, counsellors should make a conscious effort to cultivate this base. "The primary tactic for accruing power in this form is to get to know those whom one wishes to influence and to allow them to get to know you" (Martin, 1978, p. 52).

In conclusion, Martin (1978) states that "consultants who are perceived as experts must balance this perception by accentuating areas of commonality between themselves and their consultees" (p. 53).

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER TWO

Adler's position was that the central motivating force around which all other forces evolve is the will to power or the striving for competence. The direction of this striving lies within the social interest of the person (Ansbacher, 1978).

Therapy and counselling can be viewed as an educational and encouraging process designed to foster social interest and to promote self-growth (Nikelly, 1971). Social interest and growth are fostered by the therapist through the use of referent power, informational power, reward power and expert power.

School counsellors help students to overcome certain areas where they lack knowledge (informational) power) and to overcome certain difficulties and possible discouragement in interpersonal relationships (informational power, referent power, reward power and expert power). Being established as a helping person within the school, the counsellor is thus seen as a legitimate agent in the field of counselling and information-giving (legitimate power). Vocational and academic counselling would seem to be primarily information-giving and the counsellor would tend to use informational and expert power bases. Personal and social counselling would seem to require referent power as a major base, as identification and empathy would be required in this process. It can be argued that the four types of counselling can be all grouped under one heading: personal, as all of them require the person to enter into a relationship with the counsellor. This research is thus designed to study the resources used by high school counsellors to help students overcome the informational deficiency and to grow.

CHAPTER THREE

PROCEDURE AND DESIGN

SAMPLES

Setting

The two samples were drawn from four high schools in the Renfrew County Board of Education. Renfrew County is situated in a relatively poor part of the province of Ontario and of the country. Except for Deep River and the professional stratum of the population, most of the inhabitants of the County are living very near the poverty line established by the federal government, with many on social welfare and unemployment insurance.

One high school in Deep River (population: 5,565) has 990 students and fifty-five teachers. Since the Atomic Energy of Canada Limited has one of its nuclear reactors in Deep River, the village has a very high proportion of its population in the high income bracket. Engineers and professional workers form the majority of the population. The standard of living in the village is quite high in comparison to the rest of the County and the expectations of the working force are much higher.

Another high school is situated in Petawawa on a Canadian Forces Base. The school is quite small, with approximately four hundred students and seventy-five staff. Students who attend this school must have one parent who is employed by the Canadian Armed Forces.

A third high school with eleven hundred students and seventy teachers is located in Pembroke, the major center of the County. With a population of fifteen thousand, Pembroke represents the seat of the County government and the largest shopping area between Ottawa and North Bay. In Pembroke are situated the specialists in medicine and other amenities which are usually found in a small city. Despite its retail and commercial markets, Pembroke is a poor city. The majority of the population is low average to average income earners. Many of the adults do not work at all, as the unemployment rate fluctuates between twenty and thirty percent at all times.

The fourth school is situated in the countryside, serving primarily rural areas and small villages. The school, with nine hundred and sixty students and fifty-three teachers, has over ninety percent of its student population bussed daily to and from homes in the countryside. The economic level of these students would be quite low, as most of the parents would be engaged in farming or factory work.

The Counsellor Sample

Participants for this sample, thirteen in number, were selected on a voluntary basis from four high schools in the Renfrew County Board of Education and the one high school situated on the Canadian Forces Base. The age of the counsellors ranged from the early twenties to the early sixties. Since the salaries of teachers in the County are high when compared to other Renfrew County wage earners, counsellors would be classified as being upper middle class within the socioeconomic structure of Renfrew County. Ten men and three women volunteered to participate in the study.

The Student Sample

Participants in this sample, fifty-two in number, were asked to participate in the study from the caseload of the counsellor sample. Each counsellor chose students from grades nine through twelve from their appointment books. The criterion established by the researcher to guide the counsellors' choices was that the students had to have seen the counsellor for one or more counselling sessions during the 1978-79 academic year. The final choice of students was left to the counsellors. One counsellor stated that he chose students who verbalized well, as he felt this would be necessary for the research. Another counsellor mentioned that he chose the students randomly from his appointment book. Thus, although the criterion for selection was followed by the counsellors, the individual methods and motives for the choices varied from counsellor to counsellor. The students ranged in age from fourteen to nineteen years. Their backgrounds were varied, with all socioeconomic levels being represented. The exact family backgrounds and economic levels were not part of the personal information which was asked on the questionnaires.

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRES

Social Influence - Perception of Counsellors

For the purpose of the dissertation, the Social Power Inventory developed by Jamieson, Kelmann and Thomas (Jamieson & Thomas, 1974) was renamed the Social Influence - Perception of Counsellors and modified in order to be administered to the student sample. Aside from the change in the title, other minor changes in the Inventory included changing the words "that person" and "the other person" to "the counsellor". Sexist pronouns were either replaced or supplemented with the other gender pronoun, to remove possible sexual biases.

In order to ascertain if the students view the counsellor sample differently than the teaching population, six statements corresponding to the six bases of power were included with the instrument. Using a Likert-type scale, the clients were asked to compare the counsellor sample to other teachers in the school. This enabled the researcher to compare perceptions between counsellors and other teachers.

Social Influence - Perception of Self

The Social Power Inventory was modified further to adapt the questionnaire to the counsellor sample. The main changes in the revised instrument involved changing the words "the counsellors" with the pronouns "I" or "me". Personal modifiers were also changed accordingly.

In order to ascertain if the counsellors viewed themselves differently, in terms of social influence, than the rest of the teaching staff six statements, corresponding to the six bases of power, were included on the end of the instrument. Using a Likert scale, the counsellors were asked to compare themselves to the other teachers in the school. This enabled the researcher to compare the self-perceptions of the counsellors with their perceptions of the teaching staff in general, to ascertain whether they view their influence as being different.

Personal Information

For the client sample, counselling information was also included in the questionnaire. The information pertained to whether the clients were self-referred or referred by a significant other, such as teacher, parent or administrator. Questions pertaining to the domain of the counselling were also included. Social counselling referred to difficulties related to friends, dating and relations with others and family problems. Academic counselling related to difficulties with teachers, timetabling, course selection and attendance. Personal counselling referred to adaptive, developmental or other personal concerns. Vocational counselling related to interviews dealing with career planning, program planning and further education.

Other personal information requested included grade, sex and age.

For the counsellor sample, personal information included sex, kind of counselling training (from no formal courses in counselling to M.A. in counselling), years of experience in counselling and personal timetables for the current academic year.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Validity

Loevinger (1967) divides validity of test instruments into three aspects: the substantive component, structural component and external component. These three aspects are mutually exclusive and mandatory.

Substantive validity.

The substantive component of validity is the extent to which the content of the items included in the

> test can be accounted for in terms of the trait believed to be measured and the context of measurement .... (Loevinger, 1967, p. 97)

Jamieson (1971) in developing the Social Power Inventory felt it necessary to define clearly, for his purposes, what was meant by each power base. Thus, he came up with some modifications to the power base definitions and arrived at the operational definitions which guided the selection of items for inclusion in the Social Power Inventory.

> About fifteen (15) items representing each of the six bases of power were generated. Ten items for each base were chosen by the three of us to be tested for social desirability. A group (n=28) of predominantly masters students in an Advanced Management Theory course were chosen to rate the items on a nine-point scale ranging from "extremely undesirable" to "extremely desirable". From the data obtained in this study a mean and standard deviation were calculated for each item.
>
> The next step in the development process was to pair items representing different power bases by choosing items with nearly equal means and standard deviations. Each base was paired with every other base (15 combinations),

three times. A further, but very critical process at this stage was for the researcher to intuitively evaluate the pairs, formed by matching means, to determine if the two items read well together, were worded in a similar frame of reference, and if there were any obvious interaction effects, giving one a greater desirability.

In order to test for further interaction effects and retest for equal desirability, the 45-pair instrument was administered to a group (n=29) of masters students in the Graduate School of Management at UCLA.... These subjects were instructed to choose the statement ... in each pair which best represented their reasons for accepting the inputs of another person....

Based in the frequency distribution information, pairs were retained if the A and B distributions fell within a 40-60% range. To fulfill the necessary quota of pairs (30), some items were reworded or repaired by the researcher, using experience gained through the previous phrasings, pairings and ratings.

Thus, the final instrument contained 30 pairs with nearly equal social desirability. Twenty-four pairs resulted from the first rating, first pairing and second test. Only six pairs were

> necessary following the second test. (Jamieson, 1971, pp. 16-19)

However, these new items were not submitted to any further analysis.

The scoring of the Social Power Inventory is ipsative (see Appendix 6). The reason for this lies in the forced-choice type of scoring used. Where the power base variables are pitted against one another systematically for preferential judgements, the result is that a high preference for any one power base to that extent means low preference for other power bases. It is consequently impossible for an individual to score very high in all, or nearly all, of the Social Power Inventory power base variables. This ipsative scoring reflects the multifaceted and multidimensional aspects of the social power construct (Schopler, 1965). As studies such as Gold (1958), Litman-Adized et al. (1978) and Raven, Centers and Rodrigues (1975) have shown that people do attribute power bases in a preferential manner, there is empirical support for the type of scoring used in the Social Power Inventory.

Since all of the items were generated following the operational definitions of the construct, and since the scoring system supports empirical research of the theory, it can be said that the Social Power Inventory has substantive validity.

Structural validity. "The structural component of validity refers to the extent to which structural relations between test items parallel the structural relations of other manifestations of the trait being measured" (Loevinger, 1967, p. 97). Loevinger (1967) mentions homogeneity of test items as a measure of structural validity.

In the pilot study, Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients were computed on both the test and the retest. Cronbach's Alpha is a measure of item homogeneity. The Alpha coefficients on Test 1 range from .35 (Information) to .81 (Coercive), with a mean of .55. On the retest, Test 2, the Alphas range from .48 (Legitimate) to .79 (Coercive), with a mean of .64. The Alpha coefficients for each subtest are presented in Table 1.

The internal consistency reliabilities are at the levels of most attitude scales, and, although somewhat low, do show that the items are homogeneous in relation to the trait being measured. "Such a trait is appropriately measured by a cumulative test...." (Loevinger, 1967, p. 100). "The ... structure is the one in which the number of manifestations is an index of the amount of the trait" (Loevinger, 1967, p. 100).

Table 1

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients

Test 1 and Test 2, N=77

Subtests	Test 1	Test 2
Expert	.49	.70
Legitimate	.51	.48
Coercive	.81	.79
Reward	.48	.59
Referent	.65	.69
Information	.35	.57

External validity. "The external component included relation to non-test behavior, factorial pattern or relation to other tests, and absence of distortions" (Loevinger, 1967, p. 92). The Social Power Inventory has not been analysed in respect to the external component of validity. One reason mentioned by Jamieson (1971) is that no other measure exists which purports to measure the trait of power as presented by French and Raven. The present researcher can attest to that fact, as he was not able to find an equivalent, validated measure of the six bases of power in the literature. To establish external validity, the author prepared an interview adapted from Raven, Centers and Rodrigues (1975) and Learning Resources Corporation (1978) (see Appendices IV and V) which is designed to measure the same traits as the modified Social Power Inventory and can thus be used as a criterion against which the Inventory can be validated.

Reliability

In the pilot study, test-retest reliabilities were computed on the six bases of power, as measured by the Social Power Inventory. The sample for the pilot study was drawn from the St. Albert Separate School Board. The student sample was chosen by the counsellors in three St. Albert schools. The criterion and method of selection of students followed essentially the same methodology used in the dissertation proper. Seventy-seven students were chosen to complete the questionnaire. The sample included thirty-three males and forty-one females. There were fourteen students in grade seven, twelve students in grade 8, twenty-five students in grade 9, five students in grade 10, eight students in grade 11, and ten students in grade 12. The first testing session took place in January, 1979, and the retest was administered approximately four weeks later. All of the correlations between the test and the retest were highly significant ($p<.01$) (see Table 2).

The correlations range from .45 (Information) to .67 (Coercive). The mean was .54 for the six subtests. The students' answers remained consistent and stable over the four-week time span between test administrations.

Cronbach and Meehl (1955) and Loevinger (1967) state that knowledge of stability contributes to the confidence in the construct validity of the test because of interest in some traits which have longevity. The test-retest reliabilities show that the constructs being measured by the Social Power Inventory do remain fairly stable over time and the traits do have longevity.

PROCEDURE

The first step in the procedure was the administration

Table 2

Test-Retest Correlation Coefficients

Subtests	Correlation	Significance level	t
Expert	.48	$p<.01$	4.327
Legitimate	.48	$p<.01$	4.742
Coercive	.	$p<.01$	7.810
Reward	.56	$p<.01$	5.896
Referent	.62	$p<.01$	6.704
Information	.45	$p<.01$	4.332

Mean correlation=.54

N=77

of the Social Influence - Perception of Counsellors to the student sample and the Social Influence - Perception of Self to the counsellor sample.

Since no empirical validity analysis had been computed for the instruments, an interview with the counsellors and with half of the student sample was conducted to provide data for construct and criterion validity analyses on the instruments.

The interview was structured in such a manner as to tap the same areas of both written instruments, as well as the personal and counselling information. This interview served as an oral verification of the written responses of the samples.

The interviews were audiotaped and were conducted by the researcher himself. The audiotapes were then given to two impartial judges, who were to confirm the researcher's perception of the bases of power presented on the tapes. Hence, interrater reliability could be established for the interview results, which, in turn, gave the written instruments a further validity check.

HYPOTHESES

The first four hypotheses were designed in such a manner as to answer two of the three basic questions posed in Chapter One: 1) What resources or bases of of power are attributed by the students and the counsellors to the counsellor sample; and, 2) what are the combinations, if any, of the resources in relationship to certain variables within the counselling situation? Thus, variables such as sex, grade level, reason for seeking counselling and referral data were used to compare the two samples in their perceptions of counsellor influence bases.

$H_0 1$: No grade level differences exist in the perception of the six bases of power, by the student sample.

$H_0 2$: No sex differences exist in the perception of the six bases of power, by the student sample.

$H_0 3$: No domain (reason for seeking counselling) differences exist in the perception of the six bases of power, by the student sample.

$H_0 4$: No referral differences exist in the perception of the six bases of power, by the student sample.

The following hypotheses were developed from two theoretical papers, one by Lambert (1973) and the other by Martin (1978). Lambert suggests that informational and expert power bases are the major resources of the counsellors, while Martin hypothesizes that expert and referent power bases should become the framework for consultations by counsellors. Since reward and coercive power have been shown to be the most restrictive and the most conducive to poor interpersonal relationships, the sixth hypothesis was developed to ascertain whether these two bases would be significantly attributed by the student sample to the counsellor sample. An analysis of the frequency each base of power was perceived was used to test the following hypotheses.

$H_0 5$: That informational, referent and expert power will be perceived by the counsellor sample most frequently.

$H_0 6$: That reward power and coercive power will not be frequently perceived as being significant by the student sample.

The last hypothesis was included to compare the social influence of the counsellors and the social influence of the teachers within the same schools. This hypothesis is related to the assumption that the counsellors will be viewed differently from the rest of the teaching staff as they should not be perceived as mediating coercive power and should be attributed more referent power. This hypothesis, thus, aimed to test the assumption that counsellors are viewed as being different from the teachers in their role and their bases of influence. A one-way ANOVA was computed to test for statistical difference in the following hypothesis.

$H_0 7$: When comparing the counsellors' bases of power to the attributed bases of power of other teachers within the same school, there will be no significant difference between the counsellor and the student sample.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The first step in the analysis was to describe the properties of the samples, such as number of counsellors, the number of males and females, the educational levels, the years of experience and the amount of time spent daily in a counselling department. These statistics were acquired from the personal information sections of the questionnaires. As well, summary statistics were used in describing the results of the interviews with the two samples and hypotheses five and six. These results were presented in terms of percentages and frequency totals.

Chi Square Tests of Independence were used to evaluate relationships between responses to the questionnaires and background variables.

Students' and counsellors' results on the two written instruments were scored according to the score key (see Appendix 6) and then tallied into the six subtests. The maximum total score for the six subtests is thirty. The maximum score for each individual subtest is ten. Some respondents did not answer every item on the questionnaires; so their total would be less than the maximum of thirty.

The ipsative nature of the scoring system allowed ties to occur between two or more subtests. In this study, there were sixteen respondents with ties. It was decided to break ties in the following manner: the subtest closest to the left of the score key was give the "heads" side of a coin while the subtest closest to the right side of the score key was given the "tails" side of a coin. The researcher then flipped the coin. The face which showed upon landing was deemed to be the primary base of power attributed for that respondent. All the ties were broken in this manner, ensuring consistency and impartiality to all sixteen ties. The frequency of attribution for each primary base (that is, the subtest with the highest total or chosen by the tie-breaking method) was then tallied and analyzed in relation to the background variables using the Chi Square Tests of Independence.

Yates' correction for continuity was not applied to the data, as Ferguson states: "With two or more degrees of freedom the error introduced by small expected frequencies is of less consequence than with one degree of freedom" (1976, p. 202). Since all of the hypotheses involved degrees of freedom greater than one, the correction was not necessary.

A One-Way Analysis of Variance was used on hypothesis seven to identify those bases of power which showed differences between the students' and the counsellors' perceptions of counsellors' bases of power relative to the rest of the teaching staff.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

SAMPLE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Counsellor sample. Thirteen counsellors agreed to participate in the study. The thirteen counsellors were employed in four different high schools within Renfrew County. There were ten men and three women in the counsellor sample.

Educationally, all of the counsellors in the sample have had some counselling training above the regular educational requirements needed to teach in Ontario. While all counsellors had a Bachelor's degree in Education, two counsellors had taken in-service training, without a practicum, in counselling and guidance skills. Two counsellors had completed up to three summer courses offered by the Ontario Ministry of Education in guidance and counselling at an Ontario university, with limited practicum experience. Four counsellors had the Ontario Specialists' Certificate in counselling comprising of three summer courses in counselling and guidance theory and one summer of practicum supervision. The remaining five counsellors in the sample had Masters degrees in school counselling from a recognized Canadian university (see Table 3) with a full year practicum placement in high school settings.

Experientially, one counsellor, having just

Table 3

Counselling Training of the Counsellor Sample (N=13)

Type of training	Number
1. In-service training in counselling and guidance skills, with no counselling practicum	2
2. One to three six-week summer courses of the Ontario Ministry of Education Guidance Specialist's Certificate, with approximately four weeks of practicum	2
3. Ontario Ministry of Education Specialist's Certificate in Counselling, with one full summer of practicum training	4
4. Master's degree in School Counselling, with practicum similar to the Master's of Education (Counselling) at the University of Alberta.	5

graduated from a university, was in her first year in counselling. Two counsellors were in their second year in a counselling department, while one was in her third year. The nine remaining counsellors had over six years of experience as counsellors in a high school. Experientially the sample was composed of a cross-section of new counsellors and veterans in the field.

Eight counsellors in the sample were classified as full-time counsellors. Four were classified as one-half to three-quarter time. It should be noted that all of the counsellors taught at least one period of classroom time in a subject other than guidance. This teaching load is required by most principals in the County.

In summary, the counsellor sample was an experienced and well-educated group. They were predominantly employed in a guidance and counselling department, although they all taught at least one classroom subject outside of counselling.

Student sample. Using the method outlined in Chapter Three, fifty-two students were chosen by the counsellors from their caseloads. Ten students were in grade 9, the first year of high school in Ontario. Twelve students were in grade 10, twelve were in grade 11 and eighteen were in grade 12. There were twenty males and thirty females in the sample.

Seventeen students stated that social counselling was their major reason for seeking counselling. Their concerns primarily involved difficulties with family, friends or boy-girl concerns. Three students saw a counsellor specifically for academic counselling. Their concerns centered on difficulties with teacher, timetables and inattendance. The reason for so few referrals in this domain could lie in the fact that the research was conducted at the beginning of June, at which time the academic problems are usually solved or ignored.

Fourteen students saw the counsellor for concerns relating to personal areas, such as sexual, developmental or adaptive difficulties. Eighteen students visited the counsellors for vocational concerns, career counselling or future planning.

It should be noted that the four domains arbitrarily divided the presenting problems into categories. The students often had difficulties in exactly delineating the areas of concern. They noted that the four areas often interact and complement each other. The counselling sessions often switched domains, depending on the current topic and the specific discussion. The choice of domain was based on the major topic of discussion in the sessions.

Since it was nearing the end of the school year, all of the counselling sessions were in the terminating stages and were held previous to this research. The number of sessions ranged from one to over ten. There was no provision made for continuing the counselling in the new academic year.

Thirty-three students described themselves as self-referred. Nineteen were referred by another person, such as parents, teachers or school administrators.

TEST OF THE HYPOTHESES

The first four hypotheses related four independent variables and the attributions of the bases of power. The four independent variables were grade levels, sex, domain (reasons for seeking the counselling), and whether the students were self-referred or other-referred. The following hypotheses were analyzed on the results from the two written instruments: the *Social Influence - Perception of Others* and the *Social Influence - Perception of Self*.

Hypothesis 1: *No grade level differences exist in the perception of the type of influence being exerted by the counsellors in the student sample*.

As shown in Table 4, the null hypothesis of independence between grade level and type of influence was not rejected (X^2=17.5; df=12, p>.05). There were

Table 4

Relationship Between Grade Levels and Attributes of Power*

Grades	Bases of Power					
	Reward	Coercive	Expert	Legitimate	Referent	Informational
9	2	0	3	2	0	3
10	4	0	6	0	0	2
11	2	0	4	0	3	3
12	6	0	8	1	0	3

Chi Square=17.503 df=12 $P>.05$ N=52

* Since all the cells in coercive power were 0, this base was not included in the calculation of the Chi Square (Ferguson, 1976).

no significant differences in the students' perceptions of the bases of power when grade level was used as the variable for study. All of the four grade levels attributed expert power as the dominant base of power, suggesting that new students and fourth-year students share essentially the same perceptions of the counsellors' social influence.

Hypothesis 2: No sex differences exist in the perception of the type of influence being exerted by the counsellors in the students sample.

Adolescent boys and girls tend to attribute the bases of power in essentially the same manner. The hypothesis of independence between sex and type of influence was not rejected (X^2=7.368; df=4; $p > .05$). Females attributed expert power and reward power as the two major bases, while males attributed expert power and informational power as the two major bases. However, these differences were not of sufficient magnitude to attain signficance (see Table 5).

Hypothesis 3: No domain differences exist in the perception of the type of social influence being exerted by the counsellors in the student sample.

Table 5

Relationship Between Sex and Attributes of Power*

Sex	Bases of Power					
	Reward	Coercive	Legitimate	Expert	Referent	Informational
Males	5	0	3	6	2	6
Females	9	0	0	15	1	5

N=52

Chi Square=7.368 df=4 P>.05

* Since all the cells in coercive power were 0, this base was not used in the calculation of the Chi Square (Ferguson, 1976).

The hypothesis of independence for reasons for seeking counselling and the type of influence was not rejected ($X^2=6.66$; df=12; $p>.05$). As Table 6 shows, students, regardless of the type of counselling or the main presenting problem seem to attribute the bases of power in essentially the same manner to the counsellors.

Hypothesis 4: No referral differences exist in the perception of the type of social influence being exerted by the counsellors in the student sample.

As Table 7 shows, students, whether they referred themselves or whether they were referred by others for the counselling, tend to attribute the type of power being exerted in essentially the same manner ($X^2=3.68$; df=4; $p>.05$). Students who referred themselves for counselling rated expert power and reward power as the two major bases. Students who were referred for counselling by another person (such as a parent, teacher or administrator) attributed expert power and informational power bases. However, these differences in perceptions were not of sufficient magnitude to attain significance.

In the following two hypotheses developed from the theoretical papers of Martin (1978) and Lambert

Table 6

Relationship Between Reasons for Seeking Counselling and Attributes of Power*

Domain	Bases of Power					
	Reward	Coercive	Legitimate	Expert	Referent	Informational
Social	5	0	0	7	2	3
Academic	1	0	0	1	0	1
Personal	4	0	2	5	1	2
Vocational	4	0	1	8	0	5

N=52

Chi Square=6.662 df=12 P>.05

* Since coercive power had no frequencies in any of the cells, this base was not used in the calculation on the Chi Square (Ferguson, 1976).

Table 7

Relationship Between Self/Other Referral and Attributes of Power*

Referral data	Bases of Power					
	Reward	Coercive	Expert	Legitimate	Referent	Informational
self-referral	10	0	13	3	2	5
other-referral	4	0	8	0	1	6

N=52

Chi Square=3.684 df=4 P>.05

* Since all the cells in coercive power were 0, this base was not used in the calculation of the Chi Square (Ferguson, 1976).

(1973), the highest scores for each of the six power bases was taken to indicate the major base for each of the counsellor respondents. Then, the major bases of power were tallied to arrive at the total frequency for each of the six bases.

Hypothesis 5: That informational power, referent power and expert power bases will be perceived by the counsellor sample most frequently.

As can be seen in Table 8, expert power and reward power were mainly attributed by the counsellors in their counselling relationships. Informational power was third. Legitimate, referent and coercive power bases were not attributed to any great extent by the counsellors as their major sources of influence. Since Lambert (1973) hypothesized that informational and expert power would be the two major bases and since Martin (1978) advanced expert and referent power for counsellors this hypothesis can be rejected. Referent power was not attributed in this sample. As well, reward power was not mentioned as a power base in either Lambert (1973) or Martin (1978).

Hypothesis 6: That reward power and coercive power bases will not significantly be perceived by the students in the sample.

Table 9 shows that the students in the sample

Table 8

Main Counsellor Bases of Power

Reward	5
Coercive	1
Expert	4
Legitimate	0
Referent	0
Informational	3

N=13

Table 9

Main Student Bases of Power

Reward	14
Coercive	0
Expert	21
Legitimate	3
Referent	3
Informational	11

N=52

attributed expert and reward power as the main resources used by the counsellors in their influence attempts. Informational power ranked third in importance by the students. Legitimate power, coercive power and referent power were not considered as major resources which were used by the counsellors. Since it was hypothesized that both reward and coercive power would not be attributed by the students, this hypothesis must be rejected. Reward power was attributed by approximately twenty-eight percent of the student sample as being the main base of power used by the counsellors in their counselling relationships.

The final hypothesis was aimed at differentiating the counsellors from the other teachers in the schools in regard to the bases of power. The counsellors were asked to rate themselves while the students rated the counsellors in comparison to the other teachers. Using a five-point Likert-type scale, the two samples compared the counsellors and the teachers with regards to each of the six power bases. A One-Way Analysis of Variance was used to statistically analyze the results in order to determine of the counsellors and students differed significantly in their ratings.

Hypothesis 7: When comparing the counsellors' bases of power to the attributed bases of power of the other teachers within the school, there will be no significant difference between the counsellor and the student sample.

Table 10 shows that, of the six bases of power measured, students and counsellors tend to share essentially the same perceptions of the influence of the counsellor on three of the six bases. When comparing counsellors and teachers on reward power, coercive power and referent power, the counsellors and the students were very similar in their attributions.

For reward power, the counsellors rated themselves as being somewhat lower than the neutral point of "three" on the scale (mean=2.54), while students rated the counsellors as slightly more than the other teachers (mean=3.21). These differences were not of sufficient magnitude to be significant. For coercive power, both the students (mean=2.08) and the counsellors (mean=2.17) rated the counsellors as mediating much less coercion than the other teachers. Both samples attributed more referent power to the counsellors compared to the rest of the teaching staff.

Significant differences were found for three bases of power. While students attributed legitimate power as being above the neutral point for the teaching staff (mean=3.62), counsellors rated themselves as being below that point (mean=2.85). Students attributed significantly more legitimate power than did the counsellors.

Table 10

Students' and Counsellors' Comparison of Counsellors and Teachers

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Significance of Differences
Reward	Counsellors	13	2.54	.88	No
	Students	52	3.21	1.45	
Coercive	Counsellors	13	2.08	.95	No
	Students	52	2.17	1.04	
Expert	Counsellors	13	3.32	1.03	Yes
	Students	52	4.31	.85	
Legitimate	Counsellors	13	2.85	.69	Yes
	Students	52	3.62	1.22	
Referent	Counsellors	13	3.61	1.12	No
	Students	52	4.21	1.16	
Informational	Counsellors	13	3.85	.90	Yes
	Students	52	2.92	1.10	

A significant difference was also found for expert power. Students attributed "much more" expert power to the counsellors than did the counsellors to themselves, when the rest of the staff is considered. Students in this sample rated the counsellors as being very high in expert power, with a mean of 4.31 where the maximum score could be 5.

A further significant difference related to informational power. While the students rated the counsellors as slightly below the rest of the teaching staff (mean= 2.92), the counsellors rated themselves as being above the rest of the teachers (mean=3.85). The counsellors attributed significantly more informational power to themselves than the students attributed to the counsellor sample relative to the other teachers.

THE INTERVIEWS

Twenty-six students and twelve counsellors were asked and consented to be interviewed after the administration of the written instruments. The interview format (see Appendices 4 and 5) was designed to assess the same areas as the written instruments, but in a more informal and less structured manner. The major difference between the written instruments and the oral interview was in the formulation of the bases of power. While the written instruments were forced-choice, the interviews asked the students to rank the bases of power on a Likert-type scale. The students were asked to rate the bases of power in relation to their counsellors. The counsellors rated the bases of power in relation to the categories of the presenting problems. Since four students were chosen by each counsellor, it was decided that it would be too time-consuming to focus on each individual student. Therefore, to facilitate the interviewing process, the counsellor interviews focused on the type of presenting problem. As well, had the counsellors been queried regarding each student, they would have drawn on memory and past perceptions rather that present attributions. This recollection process could have influenced the responses of the counsellors.

The students. In addition to being asked various other questions about the counselling process and the counsellor, the students were asked to rank the bases of power which they felt were used by the counsellors in the interviews. The introductory comments by the researcher, which were uniformly read to all students who were interviewed, stated that the researcher was interested in finding out why the students might do as the counsellor said. Then, the six statements, which represented each of the six bases of power, were read to the students. The students were then asked to state which of the statements would be very likely, somewhat likely or not likely reasons for doing what the counsellor suggested (see Appendix 5 for the complete format of the interviews and the edited transcripts of the interviews).

All of the students, except two, chose either expert or informational power regardless of the domain or the presenting problem (see Table 11). The consistency with which the students attributed expert power and informational power is very high. These two bases were perceived by approximately ninety-two percent of the students who were interviewed by the researcher. Students perceived the counsellors as experts, regardless of the presenting problem, and of possessing some valuable information and persuasive reasoning to accept this information.

The counsellors. Essentially the same format was used with the counsellors (see Appendix 4). The major difference between the two formats was that the counsellors were asked to rate the bases of power in relation to the type of presenting problems, rather than to themselves in general. Each base was presented to the counsellors and they were asked to rate these bases in terms of vocational, personal, social and academic problems which the students presented to them.

Table 11

Bases of Power in Interviews of Students

Reward	1
Coercive	0
Expert	15
Legitimate	0
Referent	1
Informational	9

N=26

Fifty-eight percent of the counsellors chose informational power as their main base (see Table 12). There is, however, some variation according to domain. For instance, in vocational counselling, the counsellors attributed expert power and informational power equally to themselves. In social counselling, informational power was attributed approximately sixty-five percent of the time. Counsellors seemed to choose the base of power or the resource as a function of the domain, with informational power being the primary method of influence used by the counsellors.

Students and counsellors. Although the counsellors and the students were surveyed independently and in a somewhat different manner, the results of the two groups are very similar. Both samples attributed expert power and informational power to the counselling, albeit in reverse order. The counsellors attributed an informational base while the students attributed an expert base. The order was reversed for the second base. In both cases the other bases are quite distant in the degree of importance as resources of influence.

One area of disagreement seems to lie in the perception of referent power. While only one student awarded this base, eight counsellors did so, with reference to the domains of social and personal

Table 12

Bases of Power in Interviews of Counsellors *

Domain	Bases of Power					
	Reward	Coercive	Expert	Legitimate	Referent	Informational
Vocational	0	0	6	0	1	6
Academic	1	0	5	0	0	8
Personal	0	0	0	1	5	9
Social	0	0	2	1	3	11

N=12, with each counsellor having 4 choices, for a total N=48

* This table includes bases that were tied or which the counsellors rated as being equal in strength.

counselling, indicating that, while referent power seems important to the counsellors in these two domains, this base was not perceived by the students as having the same strength.

Force and coercion were not seen as methods of influence in the counselling relationship in either sample.

INTEGRATION OF THE WRITTEN INSTRUMENTS AND THE INTERVIEWS

Table 13 shows the results with the student sample on both the written and oral instruments. The students were divided into three groups: 1) students who had the primary base (that is, the power base with the highest or tied as the highest score on the written instrument) on the written instrument correspond with the same primay base in the interview; 2) students who had the same primary and secondary bases (that is, the power base with the second highest or tied as the second highest score on the written instrument) on both the written instrument and in the interview, although not in a one-two relationship; and, 3) students who had no correspondance between the primary and secondary bases on the written instrument and in the interview.

For example, in Table 13, student #4 attributed the same two bases on both the written instrument and

Table 13

Comparison of the Students' Main Choices on the Written Instrument and in the Oral Interview

Students	Bases of power					
	Reward	Coercive	Expert	Referent	Legitimate	Informational
$\#1^{2}$	7	2	7	5	2	6
	2	1	2	1	1	3
$\#2^{2}$	4	2	8	5	1	10
	1	1	3	1	1	2
$\#3^{3}$	5	2	4	4	1	7
	1	2	3	1	2	1
$\#4^{1}$	5	1	7	5	4	8
	1	1	2	1	2	3
$\#5^{1}$	6	6	8	4	1	5
	2	1	3	2	1	2

Table 13 (cont'd)

Students	Bases of power					
	Reward	Coercive	Expert	Referent	Legitimate	Informational
#6[1]	6	1	7	5	4	7
	1	1	3	2	2	2
#7[2]	4	3	8	4	2	9
	1	1	3	1	1	2
#8[3]	3	4	5	7	5	6
	1	1	3	1	1	1
#9[1]	2	4	7	6	4	7
	1	1	2	1	1	3
#10[1]	3	1	9	7	3	7
	1	1	3	2	1	1
#11[1]	6	0	8	7	3	6
	1	1	3	1	2	3

Table 13 (cont'd)

Students	Bases of power					
	Reward	Coercive	Expert	Referent	Legitimate	Informational
#12^2	9	0	7	4	4	6
	2	1	2	2	2	3
#13^3	7	0	5	6	5	7
	1	1	3	2	2	1
#14^3	6	2	2	7	8	5
	3	1	2	2	2	2
#15^2	6	4	6	5	2	7
	1	1	3	1	1	2
#16^3	10	0	5	4	4	7
	2	1	3	1	2	1
#17^2	5	1	10	5	1	8
	1	1	2	1	1	3

Table 13 (cont'd)

Students	Bases of power					
	Reward	Coercive	Expert	Referent	Legitimate	Informational
#18[1]	7	2	7	4	2	7
	1	1	3	2	1	1
#19[1]	5	3	7	6	3	6
	1	1	3	2	2	2
#20[2]	6	2	5	7	6	3
	2	1	2	2	3	2
#21[2]	6	1	10	5	0	7
	2	1	2	1	1	3
#22[1]	7	0	7	5	3	8
	1	1	2	2	1	3
#23[3]	7	2	7	4	8	2
	1	1	1	3	1	2

Table 13 (cont'd)

Students	Bases of power					
	Reward	Coercive	Expert	Referent	Legitimate	Informational
#24[3]	5	5	6	5	3	6
	1	1	2	2	3	2
#25[1]	6	2	8	8	1	5
	2	1	3	1	1	2
#26[3]	8	5	5	2	3	7
	1	1	2	2	1	3

N=26

1. This student had the primary base on the written instrument correspond with the same primary base in the interview.
2. This student had the same primary and secondary bases on both the written instrument and in the interview, not in a one-two relationship.
3. This student had no correspondance between the primary and secondary bases on the written instrument and in the interview.

the interview. Student #1 attributed the same two bases, but in reverse order. On the written instrument, he attributed expert power, then informational power, while in the interview he attributed informational power, then expert power. Student #3 had no agreement in his power base attributions for the written instrument and the oral interview.

Thirty-nine percent of the students who completed the written instrument and the interview rated the same base of power, including ties, as being the most important type of influence exerted by the counsellors during the counselling sessions. A further twenty-seven percent rated the same first and second bases of power, including ties, although not in direct correspondance with each other. Thus, sixty-five percent of the student sample has agreement on the two most important or tied as the most important bases of power in both the written and in the interview formats. Concurrent validity can be said to exist for the written instrument, as measured by the interview.

This high degree of consistency is shown to a lesser extent by the written responses and the oral interviews of the counsellors. Due to the format of the counsellors' interviews, it is not possible to directly compare the two methods. Table 12 shows that informational and expert power were chosen by the counsellors as the major resources used in the counselling sessions. These two bases are the same two which were chosen by the students.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

Students in this research manifested the three aspects of the striving for power or superiority proposed by Adler. First, by seeking counselling for their difficulties, questions, concerns or problems, the students sought answers from the counsellors in order to achieve competence or to become more fully developed. Nineteen students stated that they were "other referred" for the counselling. In this writer's experience in counselling many students who are referred still do not attend the counselling sessions. The students in this sample, even though the counselling was recommended from another person, still chose to attend the sessions and to seek the counsellor's help. Second, by seeking counselling, these students were attempting to change their apperceptive schema or their fictitious goal in order to better integrate their personality with their environment. Third, the students showed social interest by expressing interest in careers, in future planning, by attempting to solve interpersonal problems or family concerns or by seeking advice regarding academic or social problems. This active seeking out of information, guidance and help indicates that these students have begun to develop their inherent potentialities for social interest.

The counsellors' task was the development of this inherent potentiality of the students. In fact, Adler (in Ansbacher & Ansbacher, 1956) delegated to the schools part of the shared responsibility for the promotion, development and culture of this budding social interest and feeling.

> Thus, the counselor has the responsibility both for teaching the students the consequences of his ... behavior and for helping him to achieve an optimal balance between meeting his own needs as an emerging individual and integrating with his social environment. This balance implies not merely conforming to external standards, but also choosing with wisdom from the alternatives available and manipulating the environment for greater freedom and personal enrichment. (Gometz & Parker, 1968, p. 441)

Eighty-nine percent of the students who were interviewed in this research stated that the counsellors did in fact have influence over their behavior, either during or after the counselling sessions. This admission of influence stresses the point that the counsellors must become aware of the influence resources, influence strategies and influence outcomes during their counselling interviews. Not only did the students attribute influence to the counsellors over their own behavior, eighty-four percent stated that they believed that the counsellors had influence over the student body. They felt that influence in the areas of academic and vocational planning was the most important task in the counsellors' role. The students stated that counsellors were in the schools "to help" the students with whatever problems they had. Without having any direct contact with the majority of the students in a school, counsellor influence is attributed.

Students, in this sample, mentioned areas like course changes, future planning, college and university programmes and careers as the major areas of counsellor influence in terms of mentioned frequency. These results support Leviton (1977) who found that the four major functions of a guidance counsellor all related to academic and vocational counselling.

Students who did not see the counsellors for personal or social problems stated that counsellors did not have much influence in these areas. Rather, parents and peers exerted much more influence than did the counsellors in personal and social counselling. This supports the stated views of Stotland (1959) and Wolfe (1959). This point of view was also supported by one counsellor. However, students who saw the counsellors for personal problems differed with this opinion. They felt that the counsellors were individuals to whom they could turn in times of stress. Three students mentioned that their counsellors were friends who could "bale them out" and support them in time of need. While there was some disagreement among the students regarding the role of the counsellor, there was no doubt that the school counsellors did exert influence and that they were seen as helpful and competent people whose primary task is to give advice and to be there when needed.

Counsellors who were interviewed differed somewhat in their own perceptions of their roles. Some counsellors felt that vocational counselling through the provision of information constituted their major role. Others saw that their main task was to be empathic. To them, the relationship was primarily in counselling. This relationship provided a modeling situation based on respect and mutual liking. Another counsellor felt that his job was to act as a facilitator, saying that counsellors are trained to help the students understand themselves, to make a decision. Still another counsellor felt that his main task was to act as a mediator, between students and parents, teachers and students, teachers and parents, teachers and teachers, administrators and parents, administrators and students, requiring much expertise in interpersonal conflict resolution and interpersonal negotiations on his part.

Counsellors, despite the disagreements regarding their roles, all felt that their major task was to provide alternatives to the students. It was then the students' task to choose from among these alternatives the one which best answered the presenting problem.

In fact, when discussing the differences between counsellors and teachers, one student stated: "You're asking for counselling, not a teacher. So, they shouldn't tell me what to do, like a teacher". This expressed attitude supports the Adlerian position on the promotion of social interest and of competence, not through giving all of the answers but rather through encouragement, the presentation of alternatives and the emotional support necessary for the implementation of these alternatives.

Bases of Power

Students, on the written instrument, attributed three bases to the counsellors--reward power, expert power and informational power. In the interviews they attributed two bases--expert power and informational power. The author believes (although this was not persued with the students) that, in the interview, the reward base collapsed into the other two bases. From the comments during the interviews, students seemed to group the rewarding aspect of influence (that is, the course changes, the little extra support and help, the favors and the unasked for advice) with informational power.

The three main bases attributed by the students seem to match the counsellor's role. Mortensen (1972) and Walter (1963) stress that influence cannot occur without communication between people. This communication of informational power is non-manipulative and is dependent upon the receiver who uses the behavior of the counsellor as assistance in determining a thought or action (Deutch & Gerard, 1955). Informational power leads to private acceptance of change, internal attribution and more positive evaluation of the influencer (Litman-Adizes et al., 1977). Students, in the interview, stressed the fact that the counsellor could not force or compel them to complete or undertake any specific action. The counsellor acted like a catalyst in the process, by the provision of pertinent information and various alternatives from which the student could choose. The concept of readiness was a recurrent theme with both the students and the counsellors. Both groups felt that no change could be effected without the student first deciding that change was needed and necessary. This supports the writings of Mosak and

Dreikurs (1973), Nikelly (1971) and Nikelly and Dinkmeyer (1971).

Expert power was another main resource used by the counsellors that was attributed by the students. The related concepts of faith (Mosak & Dreikurs, 1973), competence and public image support this resource (Strong & Matross, 1973). Comments such as "they know what they are doing" and "that's their job, to help you out" indicate the extent to which the students trust and have faith in the counsellors in this sample. One counsellor, in fact, cautioned that perhaps counsellors wield too much influence and must be made aware of their influence and its strength. Although not studied, the researcher wonders if the students accept the counsellors' suggestions blindly or if they sort them out to determine their worth on their own. If this expertise is accepted blindly, then the counsellors must become aware of their areas of expertise and their attributions by the students.

> Expert power of A over B stems not only from B's attributing superior knowledge to A, but also from B's trusting A .... Only if A can supplement his expertise with well-developed informational influence could he anticipate that this influence would be accepted. (Raven & Kruglanski, 1970, p. 97)

The counsellors in this sample seem to have meshed these two bases quite well. Their expertise is attributed by the students who perceived the information, the persuasion and the reasoning of the counsellors. The correlation between the written expert base and the oral informational base was significant ($r=.44$, $p > .05$) indicating the interaction of these two bases.

The attribution of reward power on the written instrument indicated that the students felt that counsellors could mediate rewards for them. This feeling was supported by some counsellors who felt that they were in an appropriate position to help students who were having difficulties in certain courses or with certain teachers. This little extra help might make, as one counsellor said, the counsellors "easy targets". Another counsellor said: "If we put in a word for them, they'll get what they want". This rewarding base was supported on the written instrument, while, in the interviews, it was not. This may be because the students did not differentiate between informational and reward bases, as the comments seem to indicate. This could be an area where the oral instrument failed to discriminate properly between the two bases of power. Another explanation could lie in the fact that the rewards were included in the expert base, as they could be interpreted as being part of the competence and role of the counsellors.

It was somewhat surprising that referent power was not attributed more by students and counsellors in the samples. Although it was mentioned as being important by three counsellors, it did not figure prominantly in the frequency ratings of the resources. On the written instrument, the items representing referent power emphasized friendship and could have limited the base and the choice of the students. Although friendship was mentioned by a few students, concepts such as "model", "respect", "trust" and "understanding" were used by both samples. These concepts refer to aspects of referent power and perhaps indicate that this resource is more important than what was measured by both instruments in this research. It is interesting to note that in the interviews a different, broader statement was used to represent referent power. This base, even then, still rated quite low in both samples' attributions. It seems that this particular base is quite difficult to convey adequately in a single statement.

Legitimate power was also ranked quite low. The major reason seemed to be that legitimacy assumes control and force. Students made it very clear that they could not be forced to implement the suggested changes. The role of the counsellor, per se, was not enough to cause change. Counsellors themselves mentioned that their personalities were critical in the counselling process and often superseded the role aspect of the position. In other words, although the counsellor may be the legitimate helping person in the school, students did not accept the information and influence on this basis alone. Rather, they accepted the influence because they trusted the competence of their counsellor and were assured that the information provided was in their best interest.

It was rewarding to see the very low attribution of coercive power. In fact, during the interviews, students scoffed at the idea that the counsellors might punish or hurt them if they did not comply. This seemed foreign to them. However, it could be that this base was somewhat underrated. There are many times when students consented to attend classes because the counsellor was the last person to be consulted before expulsion. This type of compliance could be interpreted as coercion, although the counsellor could not directly mediate the punishment and the consequences. Glasser (1965) speaks of the therapist withdrawing the treatment if the client does not conform to the contract between the counsellor and the client. This may indicate that, at times, coercive power can in the long run cause positive changes and growth in the client.

Discussion of the Hypotheses

None of the experimental hypotheses was supported in the research. It was expected that the bases of power would change as the students advanced through the four levels of high school. This result was not supported, just as it was not supported by Jamieson (1971). His results also ran counter to his expectations. He found that students attributed coercive and legitimate power bases to teachers, while our sample attributed informational and expert bases. This would seem to indicate that the students do differentiate between counsellors and teachers within the schools. When asked to compare counsellors to teachers, no significant differences were found for reward, coercive or referent power bases. Significant results were found for expert, legitimate and informational power.

The results for the domains can be explained by the fact that perhaps the domains themselves were not clearly defined nor understood by the samples. Raven, Centers and Rodrigues (1975) found significant differences based on the domains. However, they defined their domains with specific examples and statements rather than general categories, as was done in this research.

Sex differences were not found as well. Although males rated expert, informational and reward bases as being nearly equal in importance, the females rated expert as being the most important. However, the differences were not statistically significant.

An alternate interpretation of the lack of significant differences for the hypotheses could be that, in this situation, the students and the counsellors were very consistent and very similar in the attributions of social power. Variables such as sex, grade and domain become less important in the students' perceptions than the counsellor and the counselling process. It would seem that students and counsellors are very similar in their attributions. It can be hypothesized that, based on the results, the counsellors and the clients have indeed matched their resources and their needs. This could explain, in part, the consistency and similarity of the results. A proper matching process is necessary for social influence to occur (Strong & Matross, 1973).

This research does, however, differ with Adlerian psychology in one aspect: that of negative power. Adler seemed to visualize power in terms of "power over others" for the promotion of personal power and to the detriment of the other person. This research has demonstrated that social power can be and, in fact, is present in the counselling relationship. As well, this influence of the counsellor over the students is a positive and growth-producing influence aimed at the development of competence and social interest in the students.

The one aspect of Adler's theory which this research did not pursue is the personal power of the counsellors. Questions such as "what do the counsellors receive from the students?" and "how are the couselling relationships growth-producing for the counsellors?" were outside the scope of this research. These questions would certainly provide interesting stimuli for further research.

Summary

This research did not support the theoretical papers of Lambert (1973) and Martin (1978). Lambert (1973) hypothesized that expert power and informational power were the two major bases or resources available to counsellors and psychotherapists. This research, in fact, found expert power, reward power and informational power in the interviews. Martin (1978) stressed referent and expert power as becoming the bases for consultation for psychologists. Although referent power was found not to be salient, it was inferred by the oral comments of the subjects that identification, trust and empathy do play an important, if not a major role in the counselling of students.

Another finding relates to the congruence between the counsellors' and the students' attributions of social power. Essentially the same bases were attributed by both samples, regardless of sex, grade, domain, school or counsellor. This can be interpreted to suggest that the counsellors have matched the needs of the students to the chosen resources. Thus, the Merluzzi et al. (1977) equation of behavior change equals counsellor power base and characteristics plus client need and characteristics plus opposition and resistance seems to hold true for this research. The three parts of the equation seem to be in balance. Both the counsellors and the students seem to be aware of the areas of resistance and inhibition.

A third finding is that counsellor influence over the client can be positive and growth-producing, contrary to Adlerian position.

LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

There seem to be three limitations to this study. The first limitation lies in the choice of sample. The two samples are by no means random for all students and counsellors or any specific student or counsellor population. The students are all students in a high school and the counsellors are all counsellors in high school. Yet, how representative they might be is unknown. The results and discussion is thus limited to these samples. Since these samples were drawn from a primarily rural school board, it is not known how representative or generalizable the results are to other school boards, either rural or urban, and to other provinces.

Another limitation lies in the instruments themselves. Although the Cronbach alphas point to fairly adequate internal consistency and the interviews did provide some concurrent validity, the instruments do need refinement and further analysis. Some items need rewarding and rephrasing to make them more compatible and more desirable. Being ipsative, the written instruments do not provide the necessary leeway for discussion and analysis.

A third limitation lies in the theoretical framework itself. French and Raven's original formulation of social power and power bases remain essentially unchanged, albeit that attribution theory has been added. However, the distinction between the six bases remains somewhat unclear and perhaps arbitrary. In fact, Raven, Centers and Rodrigues (1975), in their major study, did not sample informational power.

> The reason for this omission is that we had difficulty phrasing a question which could be

> clearly understood by all respondents, within the limited time allocation, and which would not become something of a "catch-all" item. For example, the "informational alternative" "because I could understand the reason why I should do this", after probing, was sometimes determined to be some other source of power .... (1975, p. 222)

This confluence of the bases leads one to wonder if, in fact, in real life, these bases can be experimentally differentiated and if people do differentiate among the bases. Garisson and Pate (1977), in attempting to devise an instrument to measure social power, used five bases developed by French and Raven and found that on factor analysis, utilizing oblique rotation, the five bases collapsed into each other with three factors emerging as primary: positive personal power, negative personal power and reward power. They conluded that the interpersonal power construct is multidimensional and that further testing of the interpersonal power construct is necessary to enhance our understanding of the dimensions and lead to a more stable measurement.

> Perhaps the strongest finding in this study is that the items intended to tap different dimensions of power loaded on a single factor, suggesting either that S's are unable to distinguish between the

> dimensions of power or that differential weights exist among the dimensions themselves. (Garrison & Pate, 1977, p. 104)

French and Raven do not include the personality variables necessary for power (McLelland, 1973; Winter, 1973). As well, other bases may exist than the six they have isolated. In fact, Learning Resources Corporation (1977) have developed a new instrument (not statistically analyzed) which has seven bases.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

A follow-up study to this research could involve a case study approach, using video-tapes of interviews. The researcher could then isolate words and phrases which denote the base of power and attempt to verify through visual means the usage of the attributed base. Parlee (1979) studied the power plays involved in conversations between people and an adaptation of that study could be implemented for the study of social power in the counselling interviews.

More research needs to be done on the instruments used in this research. Factor analysis and item analysis need to be completed in order to ascertain the exact statistical and factorial properties of these two instruments. Without these analyses, they have proved to be adequate for research. However, further research would improve their reliability and validity and perhaps allow for commercial distribution.

Another area for further research lies in the field of power attribution. It seemed to the present researcher that many times students were making value judgements about the influence rather than attributions. The difference being that value judgements involved a position taken by the students regarding the positive or negative qualities of the resources, rather than attributing the resources as such, without this value bias.

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APPENDIX 1

SOCIAL INFLUENCE - PERCEPTION OF COUNSELLORS

SOCIAL INFLUENCE - PERCEPTION OF COUNSELLORS

Instructions for answer sheet

1. Leave name spaces blank.
2. Mark sense space for sex.
3. Mark sense space for grade.
4. Mark sense spaces for birthdate.
5. Identification spaces will be mark sensed for you.
6. Leave special codes section blank.

PLEASE BLACKEN THE ENTIRE CIRCLE -- PARTIAL MARKINGS WILL NOT BE PROCESSED

Instructions for completing the questionnaire

Our behavior is sometimes affected by the influences of other people. At times you accept another's advice, follow another's suggestions or do as another asks.

Now, we are asking you to consider the relationship you have with your counsellor in the school you attend. On the following pages are several pairs of statements describing possible reasons for your being influenced by your counsellor. For each pair, please blacken the appropriate circle, either A or B on the separate answer sheet. That is, please indicate which of the two statements is more typical when you find that you accept your counsellor's influence.

There are no right and wrong answers. Just be honest; do your best. The answers will be kept in strict confidence.

In some cases neither A nor B statements may be very typical for you; however, please select the one which best applies.

"I ACCEPT THE COUNSELLOR'S INFLUENCE BECAUSE...

1. A. I sometimes do what the counsellor says in order to get something I want.
   B. I sometimes have to go along to avoid trouble.
2. A. The counsellor always convinces me with his/her reasoning.
   B. I sometimes do things for the counsellor because I admire him/her.
3. A. The counsellor might do things for me in return.
   B. I don't know as much about it as the counsellor does.
4. A. The counsellor's suggestions always make sense.
   B. I could receive things I want from the counsellor.
5. A. I want the counsellor to like me.
   B. I often feel that it is legitimate for the counsellor to influence my behavior.
6. A. I take the counsellor's word for things.
   B. I sometimes try to avoid trouble by doing what is asked.
7. A. The counsellor has the right to tell me what to do.
   B. The counsellor is able to harm me in some way.

8. A. The counsellor knows better.
   B. I will receive something I want.
9. A. The counsellor's friendship is important to me.
   B. The counsellor seems fairly intelligent.
10. A. The reasoning of the request usually agrees with my way of thinking.
   B. The counsellor is in a position to legitimately ask things of me.
11. A. I will receive something I want.
   B. I sometimes go along with the counsellor to make him/her happy.
12. A. The counsellor's knowledge usually makes him/her right.
   B. I feel that the counsellor has the right to ask things of me.
13. A. I want the counsellor to like me.
   B. I sometimes have to go along to avoid trouble.
14. A. I would sometimes like to get things from the counsellor.
   B. Sometimes I feel that the counsellor might do something which is unpleasant to those who do not do what is suggested.
15. A. The counsellor's suggestions always make sense.
   B. I do what is asked to keep the counsellor from taking actions which could be unpleasant for me.
16. A. The counsellor should be listened to.

B. The counsellor's friendship is important to me.

17. A. The counsellor can do things which I would not like.

B. The counsellor always knows what s/he is doing.

18. A. I sometimes have to go along in order to get the things I need.

B. I often feel that it is legitimate for the counsellor to influence my behavior.

19. A. The request is sometimes appropriate, considering the counsellor's position.

B. At times, the counsellor's suggestions make sense.

20. A. I sometimes do so because I feel that the counsellor is my friend.

B. The counsellor's expertise makes him/her more likely to be right.

21. A. The counsellor has the right to tell me what to do.

B. The counsellor could do something unpleasant to me.

22. A. The counsellor is able to do things which benefit me.

B. The counsellor always convinces me with his/her reasoning.

23. A. The counsellor's position permits him/her to require things of me.

B. The counsellor's knowledge usually makes him/her right.

24. A. I trust the counsellor's judgement.

B. I agree with what the counsellor says.

25. A. Sometimes I feel that the counsellor might do something which is unpleasant to those who do not do what is suggested.

B. I always do what is asked because the counsellor's ideas are compelling.

26. A. The counsellor might help me get what I want.

B. It would not be proper sometimes for me to do otherwise.

27. A. The counsellor can make things uncomfortable for me if I don't.

B. I do what is asked to make the counsellor happy.

28. A. I would like to be the counsellor's friend.

B. The counsellor can help me.

29. A. The counsellor always gives me good reasons for doing it.

B. I sometimes do what is asked to gain the counsellor's friendship.

30. A. What the counsellor says seems to be appropriate.

B. The counsellor has had lots of experience and usually knows best.

Now compare your perceptions of the counsellors' influence to other teachers within your school, using the following scale for your comparison:

much less than other teachers	same as other teachers	much more than other teachers

31. The counsellor can administer sanctions and punishments to those who do not cooperate.

1 2 3 4 5

32. I respect the counsellor's understanding, judgment and experience.

1 2 3 4 5

33. The counsellor possesses or has access to information that is valuable to others.

1 2 3 4 5

34. I sometimes am influenced because I feel that the counsellor is my friend.

1 2 3 4 5

35. The counsellor is in a position to legitimately ask things of me.

1 2 3 4 5

36. The counsellor can provide rewards and support to those who cooperate.

1 2 3 4 5

Counselling information

37. Was the counselling sought on your own, without pressure from others?

[✓ 1) yes]   2) no

38. Choose any one of the following only:

a) Was the purpose of counselling social - about friends, relations with others?

b) Was the purpose of counselling academic - about courses, teacher problems, timetable, attendance?

c) Was the purpose of counselling personal - personal or family difficulties?

d) Was the purpose of counselling vocational - about career planning, course selection, further education?

APPENDIX 2

SOCIAL INFLUENCE - PERCEPTION OF SELF

SOCIAL INFLUENCE - PERCEPTION OF SELF

Instructions for answer sheet

1. Leave name spaces blank.
2. Mark sense space for sex.
3. Mark sense the following spaces for education:
    - 1 - no formal counselling training
    - 2 - in-service training courses in counselling
    - 3 - Parts I, II or III (not including specialist certificate) Guidance
    - 4 - specialist in counselling
    - 5 - Master's degree in Education (counselling) or equivalent.
4. Identification spaces will be mark sensed for you.
5. Leave special code section blank.

PLEASE BLACKEN THE ENTIRE CIRCLE -- PARTIAL MARKINGS
WILL NOT BE PROCESSED

Instructions for completing the questionnaire

Listed below are 30 pairs of reasons often given by people when they are asked why they do the things counsellors suggest or want them to do.

For each pair, please blacken the appropriate circle on the answer sheet, either A or B, depending on which one best describes your relationships with your student-counsellees. That is, please indicate which of the two statements is more typical when you find that the students accept your influence.

"STUDENTS ACCEPT MY INFLUENCE BECAUSE...

1. A. Students do what I say in order to get something they want.
   B. Students sometimes have to go along to avoid trouble.
2. A. I always convince them with my reasoning.
   B. They sometimes do things for me because they admire me.
3. A. I might do things for them in return.
   B. They don't know as much about it as I do.
4. A. My suggestions always make sense.
   B. They could receive things they want from me.
5. A. They want me to like them.
   B. They often feel that it is legitimate for me to influence their behavior.
6. A. They take my word for things.
   B. They sometimes try to avoid trouble by doing what is asked.
7. A. I have the right to tell them what to do.
   B. I am able to harm them in some way.
8. A. I know better.
   B. They will receive something they want.
9. A. My friendship is important to them.
   B. I seem fairly intelligent.
10. A. The reasoning of the request usually agrees with their way of thinking.

B. I am in a position to legitimately ask things of them.

11. A. They will receive something they want.

B. They sometimes go along with me to make me happy.

12. A. My knowledge usually makes me right.

B. They feel that I have the right to ask things of them.

13. A. They want me to like them.

B. They sometimes have to go along to avoid trouble.

14. A. They sometimes like to get things from me.

B. Sometimes they feel that I might do something which is unpleasant to those who do not do what is suggested.

15. A. My suggestions always make sense.

B. They do what is asked to keep me from taking actions which could be unpleasant for them.

16. A. I should be listened to.

B. My friendship is important to them.

17. A. I can do things which they would not like.

B. I always know what I am doing.

18. A. They sometimes have to go along to get the things they need.

B. They often feel that it is legitimate for me to influence their behavior.

19. A. The request is sometimes appropriate, considering my position.

B. At times, my suggestions make sense.

20. A. They sometimes do so because they feel that I am their friend.

B. My expertise makes me more likely to be right.

21. A. I have the right to tell them what to do.

B. I could do something unpleasant to them.

22. A. I am able to do things which benefit them.

B. I always convince them with my reasoning.

23. A. My position permits me to require things of them.

B. My knowledge usually makes me right.

24. A. They trust my judgement.

B. They agree with what I say.

25. A. Sometimes they feel that I might do something which is unpleasant to those who do not do what is suggested.

B. They always do what is asked because my ideas are compelling.

26. A. I might help them get what they want.

B. It would not be proper sometimes for them to do otherwise.

27. A. I can make things uncomfortable for them if they don't.

B. They do what is asked to make me happy.

28. A. They would like to be my friend.

B. I can help them.

29. A. I always give them good reasons for doing it.

B. They sometimes do what is asked to gain my friendship.

30. A. What I say seems to be appropriate.

B. I have had lots of experience and usually know best.

Now, compare your perceptions of yourself and your influence with other teachers in your school.

much less than other teachers	same as other teachers	much more than other teachers

31. I can administer sanctions and punishments to those who do not cooperate.

1 2 3 4 5

32. The students respect my understanding, judgement and experience.

1 2 3 4 5

33. The students are sometimes influenced because they feel that I am their friend.

1 2 3 4 5

34. I am in a position to legitimately ask things of them.

1 2 3 4 5

35. I can provide rewards and support to those who cooperate.

1 2 3 4 5

36. I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.

1 2 3 4 5

Personal information

37. Experience in counselling

    1. first year
    2. second year
    3. third to fifth year
    4. sixth to tenth year
    5. tenth year and more

38. Current timetable (this academic year)

    1. full-time in one school
    2. full-time in two schools
    3. full-time in three or more schools
    4. half-time to three-quarter-time
    5. quarter-time

APPENDIX 3

PRIMARY BASES OF POWER (INTERVIEWS)

Primary Bases of Power (Interviews)

ID	Tape	Side	Footage	Type of Counselling	Base
01	1	1	000-102	vocational	Informational
				academic	vary with problems
				personal	Informational/Legitimate
				social	Student oriented/Legitimate
02	1	1	103-132		Informational
03	1	1	133-169		Expert
06	1	1	171-225		Expert
08	1	1	227-284		Informational
13	1	1	285-332		Expert
10	1	1	333-387		Expert
14	1	1	388-505	vocational	Expert
				personal	Informational
				social	Expert/Informational
				academic	Reward
19	1	1	506-597	vocational	Expert

ID	Tape	Side	Footage	Type of Counselling	Base
				academic	Expert/Informational
				social	Informational
				personal	Informational
16	1	2	000-041		Expert
15	1	2	042-074		Expert
18	1	2	075-106		Informational
20	1	2	107-138		Expert
21	1	2	138-174		Informational
22	1	2	174-215		Informational
23	1	2	215-274		Expert
24	1	2	275-329		Reward
25	1	2	276-373		Expert
26	1	2	373-508	vocational	Referent/Informational
				academic	Informational
				personal	Referent
				social	Expert/Informational

ID	Tape	Side	Footage	Type of Counselling	Base
29	1	2	508-591		Informational
28	1	2	591-end		
	2	1	000-045		Expert
32	2	1	046-154	vocational	Informational
				academic	Informational
				personal	Informational
				social	Informational
33	2	1	155-217		Expert
38	2	1	217-265		Expert
39	2	1	265-341		Referent
40	2	1	344-404		Informational
41	2	1	410-414		
	2	2	000-086	vocational	Informational
				academic	Expert/Informational
				personal	Referent/Informational
				social	Referent/Informational

ID	Tape	Side	Footage	Type of Counselling	Base
46	2	2	087-170	vocational	Informational
				academic	Informational
				personal	Informational
				social	Informational
47	2	2	171-236	vocational	Expert
				academic	Informational
				personal	Referent
				social	Informational
48	2	2	237-381	vocational	Expert
				academic	Informational
				personal	Informational
				social	Informational
49	2	2	382-406		
	3	1	000-022		Informational
53	3	1	024-134	vocational	Informational
				academic	Expert

ID	Tape	Side	Footage	Type of Counselling	Base
				personal	Referent
				social	Informational/Referent
54	3	1	135-184		Expert
55	3	1	185-224		Expert
57	3	1	225-end	vocational	Expert
				academic	Expert/Informational
				personal	Referent/Informational
				social	Referent/Informational
59	3	2	000-038		Expert
58	3	2	040-083		Informational
62	3	2	084-end	vocational	Expert
				academic	Expert
				personal	Informational
				social	Informational

APPENDIX 4

INTERVIEW FORMAT FOR COUNSELLORS AND EDITED INTERVIEWS

Interview Format for Counsellors

We are interested in finding out what resources you use in your counselling relationships with your students. So, I will give you some possible reasons and would like you to tell me how likely each of these reasons is. Which one would be used the most by you in your counselling?

1. Because if your client did as you suggested, then you would do something nice for him or her in return? (Reward power)
2. Because if the student did not do so, then you might say or do something which would be unpleasant for him or her in return? (Coercive power)
3. Because your student felt that you knew best in this situation? (Expert power)
4. Because the student felt that you had the right to ask this of him or her and felt obligated to do as you asked? (Legitimate power)
5. Because the student felt that, since he or she liked, admired or felt friendly with you, he or she should do as you asked? (Referent power)
6. Because you convinced him or her by your reasoning, knowledge and persuasion? (Informational power)

Questions

1. Which of the above choices would you use most in
    a) vocational counselling

b) academic counselling

c) personal counselling

d) social counselling

2. Do you think that you have a lot of influence over your clients?

3. In terms of accountability and the future, where do you see cousellors going?

Edited Transcripts of Oral Interviews
With Counsellors

Counsellor #1

1. a) vocational counselling: informational power
   b) academic counselling: vary depending on presenting problem.
   c) personal counselling: information power
   d) social counselling: rely on students' input. Student oriented.
2. It's me as a person, more than what I say. It's my personality rather than my value system. I don't really have much influence. I don't sway kids or attempt to sway them. We all do naturally.
3. You have some influence. It comes from the interaction, from attraction. The influence is limited to students who are ready for it. Fear and different values would not allow influence to occur on some students.

Counsellor #14

1. a) vocational counselling: expert power
   b) academic counselling: reward, expert and informational powers
   c) personal counselling: informational and expert powers
   d) social counselling: informational and expert powers

2. It is more extensive in terms of group counselling, terms of careers, jobs, techniques in job interviews. A kid has to solve his own problems. The most we can do is provide alternatives and make the kid see his alternatives. The choosing of the option is up to him.
3. I see vocational counselling as becoming primary. Personal counselling is so time-consuming. Parents, the Ministry and the educational system are putting pressure for vocational counselling.

Counsellor #19

1. a) vocational counselling: informational and expert powers. Probably expert more often than informational power.

   b) academic counselling: split between expert and informational powers

   c) personal counselling: different answer for every kid. Not reward or coercive. Could be expert in some cases. Informational power basically.

   d) social counselling: hate to try and generalize (informational power)
2. No. Not enough ever really contact counsellors with what we see as problems. On the clients, yes. Very frequently we change totally the pattern of what they're doing, through our projection to them. They have respect, they think you're

listening. Therefore, you know. Therefore, you'll help.

Counsellor #26

1. a) vocational counselling: referent first; then, informational power.
   b) academic counselling: informational power
   c) personal counselling: referent power
   d) social counselling: expert power first; then, informational power.
2. I think they have a lot of influence over some. Most of my counselling is with special education people, over whom I sometimes feel that I have too much influence. I have to be very careful about that. Often they are unhappy with themselves as people; their parents who are academically inclined are often very unhappy with them; unfortunately, but true, they come from homes that are low socioeconomically; and, they come to my home and say "she must know how to get the best and if I ask her, she'll tell me". Or I also think that I have influence over them because perhaps I'm more sympathetic than the parent who is pushing. One has to be very careful with the amount of influence exerted, especially with kids who have a lot of difficulties with school. If you set up a half-way decent relationship with them, they do use you

as a model. I think I have less influence over the students who are extremely bright because they take the initiative on their won to do things. They know what they want and they often come for confirmation. Your job then is also to see the inadequacies in their programme and correct them as well.

3. I think that the stress and the way schools are going, the least I would like to give up is the social counselling and development.

Counsellor #32

1. a) vocational counselling: I wouln't use any of them completely. I give them the alternatives available (Informational power).

   b) academic counselling: informational power. We do strongly try to influence them to stick to a basic programme.

   c) personal counselling: again, we try to provide alternatives, discuss with them their problem and then make a decision based on the alternatives (Information power).

   d) social counselling: same as personal counselling.

2. I think they have, yes. I think they have certain amount of influence. I think they have more than teachers, in the areas of vocational counselling. Personal counselling maybe, not much. Peers have

more influence, perhaps.

3. I think we should be doing a lot more in the way of values counselling. Society needs a great deal more of this. I think vocational counselling is going to get big as well, to prepare the kids for a career or two or three careers.

Counsellor #41

1. a) vocational counselling: informational power

   b) academic counselling: some force due to government regulations. And expert power. For the senior students, informational power.

   c) personal counselling: none of the options. You're sitting back listening to the student blow off steam. You're more empathic and listening. They might combine referent power first and then informational power.

   d) social counselling: same as personal.

   Q. What resources do you use most?

   A. With grade 13, I try to establish empathy and respect. I use printed resources, analytical skills, use of contacts, experiential type of things. With the grade 9's, its the skill in relating to the students and the teachers.

3. Vocational counselling will probably return because it's easy to show what you are doing.

Counsellor #46

1. a) vocational counselling: expert more likely. I would present informational to them and get them to reach their own decision.

   b) academic counselling: same as vocational counselling--informational power.

   c) personal counselling: same

   d) social counselling: same

   Q. How do you see your counselling?

   A. More as a facilitator for the student. I am trained to help the students understand their own minds, what's going on and help them organize their thoughts and their feelings so that they can make a decision which they'll be happy with.

2. Over the students who aren't sure of themselves, yes. Over the students who know what they want, who are happy and without problems, no. Like your average student, no. Those who are seeking some kind of assistance, who are ready to be helped and are asking for help, yes.

3. All areas are necessary for the students as people. They are still going to have their emotional problems, their feelings that they are learning to cope with to understand themselves. They can't be ignored. Because for many students that's the most important role of guidance in the schools. That can't be thrown out because of accountability.

Academic counselling will become less difficult, less time-consuming. We are going to have to keep them all.

Counsellor #47

1. a) vocational counselling: expert power
   b) academic counselling: informational power
   c) personal counselling: referent power
   d) social counselling: informational power
2. I think so. It all depends. Academically, definitely. Vocationally, yes.
3. Academic because its more objective. You can be more accountable in academic counselling than in personal or social counselling.

Counsellor #48

1. a) vocational counselling: expert power mostly. Then, informational power.
   b) academic counselling: informational power
   c) personal counselling: informational power
   d) social counselling: informational power
2. Yes. Every one that you save from jail or wherever is the big thing. Everyone that you convince or everyone that models himself after you is worth all kinds of money to the institutions or to anyone else. The very fact that they have someone with whom they can talk confidentially about matters that they wouldn't talk to anyone else, because

you've seen that type of case before. It isn't new. There's nothing really new. They come to you because of reputation. You know the contacts, the persons to whom to refer. We don't win them all, but the one's we do are rewarding. We win our share.

3. More career and apprenticeship oriented. Much more for the phase four guy, because of public demand and government pressure.

Counsellor #53

1. a) vocational counselling: informational power
   b) academic counselling: expert power
   c) personal counselling: referent power
   d) social counselling: informational power (with referent power)
2. I think I have a fair amount. But I think a lot of it is indirect rather than direct. A lot of my counselling doesn't give them the direct approach to do something. But from the interview they seem to do it. It's not really a directive approach. More than the average teacher. In academics and personal behavior too.
3. I think we're going to maintain what we have. Our objectives won't change. Not until the principal changes.

Counsellors #57

1. a) vocational counselling: expert power
   b) academic counselling: referent power, then informational power
   c) personal counselling: expert and informational powers
   d) social counselling: same as personal counselling
2. Yes. Over clients, as long as there is a trusting relationship established. If he finds a sincere regard and that you're actually doing something extra for him than your job requires, then yes. Over the student body, yes. They use us as an objective medium. They know that we'll listen. We are approachable, oftentimes as an easy mark (course changes), sometimes to take the heat off.

Counsellor #62

1. a) vocational counselling: expert power
   b) academic counselling: expert power
   c) personal counselling: informational power
   d) social counselling: informational power
2. Over clients, not a great deal. Not directly. But indrectly you do, by pointing out to the clients how they are influenced by others, such as peers and parents. With the whole student body, very little really. Students think we can do things other teachers can't do. If we put a word in for them, they'll get what they want. We are mediators

beteen student-teachers, teachers-teachers, parent-teachers and parents-students.

3. We always will be doing the four, whether you want to see them differently. Our counsellor-student ratio in the County is now 454 to 1. I can see that it's going to be worse. You're still expected to do the same work, but with less time to do it.

APPENDIX 5

INTERVIEW FORMAT FOR STUDENTS AND EDITED INTERVIEWS

Interview Format for Students

1. We are interested in finding out why you might do as your counsellor says. So, I will give you some possible reasons and would like you to tell how likely each of these reasons might be. Generally speaking, would each reason be very likely, somewhat likely or not likely?

1. Because if you did, then he or she would do something nice for you in return? (Reward power)

2. Because, if you did not do so, then he or she might do or say something which would be unpleasant for you in return? (Coercive power)

3. Because he or she knew what was best in this case? (Expert power)

4. Because you felt that he or she had a right to ask you to do this and you felt obligated to do as he or she asked? (Legitimate power)

5. Because you felt that since you liked, admired or felt friendly with him or her, that you should do as asked? (Referent power)

6. Because he or she convinced you by his or her reasoning and persuasion? (Informational power)

2. How many interviews have you had?

3. When did you start seeing you counsellor?

4. Are you still seeing your counsellor?

5. Do you believe that your counsellor has had a

great deal of influence over your behavior?

6. Do you believe that, in general, counsellors have much influence over students?

7. Were you satisfied with the counsellor and the counselling?

8. What is the major job of a counsellor in a school?

Edited Transcripts of Oral Interviews

With Students

Student #02

1. 1. somewhat likely
   2. very unlikely
   3. somewhat likely
   4. not very likely
   5. no
   6. very likely
2. Maybe 4
3. September
4. If the school year was not over, I'd still be seeing him.
5. No
6. Not really. A lot don't bother ever coming and sometimes don't bother listening either.
7. Yes

Student #03

1. 1. no
   2. no
   3. very likely
   4. no
   5. no
   6. somewhat
2. 2
3. Called down.

4. The only time I see them is when they call me down.
5. Not much
6. Yes. They give you advice on things for your future and courses to get into.
7. Yes

Student #06

1. 1. no
    2. Yes. Somewhat likely
    3. Yes. Very likely
    4. not very likely
    5. very likely
    6. not very likely
    Q. Between 3 and 5, which one would be the major one?
    A. 3. because he knew what was best.
2. 6
3. September
4. Every third day or so
5. not really
6. not really. They don't really see you like everybody else. They see you only when you see them. Then, the students behave themselves.
7. Yes
8. To help the students change courses; to explain career and course requirements.

Student #08

1. 1. not likely
   2. not very likely
   3. very likely
   4. somewhat
   5. very likely
   6. very likely

Q. Of the three very likely's, which one would be major?

A. 6

2. a number. About 6 to 10.
3. about a year ago.
4. When I need some help, yes.
5. Yes, I do. He helped me sort out what I wanted to do. He's a person I can cry to when I need to.
6. No, I don't. The student that's going to listen to his counsellor is very rare because he is set aside. He is a teacher, he's not one of them. Students see them just for courses.
7. Yes
8. He'll be there to give me a hand. Very much like a friend.

Student #13

1. 1. not really
   2. no
   3. very likely

4. yes, in a way
5. somewhat likely
6. somewhat

2. 6 or 7

3. 2 or 3 months ago

4. Yes

5. Yes. I go down if something is bothering me. I'll go and he'll try to help me and it gets me back on the road.

6. Yes. They help the students.

7. Yes.

Student #10

1. 1. somewhat likely
   2. not likely
   3. very likely
   4. somewhat likely
   5. not likely
   6. very likely

Q. Between 3 and 6, which one would be the most?

A. 3

2. 4 or 5

3. The first of this year, September.

4. Not this term.

5. Yes. I failed math first term and would have taken home ec. this term. He told me that I should take math or I wouldn't catch up next time. So

I took math. That way, now I'm passing it. Now I don't have to worry about it next year.

6. Yes. All sorts of reasons. They've been with kids and they know what's going on.
7. He's to give advice. He has the knowledge to pick out what you're supposed to do and pull you out of problems.

Student #16

1. 1. no
   2. no
   3. yes. Most likely.
   4. no
   5. no
   6. no
2. 10 to 12
3. Around Christmas.
4. Yes
5. Yes, quite a bit. He can help me straighten around, in dealing with other students. He's a help.
6. Well, in general, yes. They talk to you and convince you about what to do. They say: "I'm going to give you some suggestions." The more likely they are to help the students, than if someone said: "Hey, you're going to do this."
7. Yes
8. His main job is to help the student get over his

rough spot.

Student #15

1. 1. no
   2. no, he wouldn't do that.
   3. great possibility. He's trained for it.
   4. no, I don't feel obligated to anybody.
   5. no. I felt that he'd give me the right answer.
   6. A little bit. But I have to agree before I'd follow through.
2. 2
3. Beginning of the year. But I've never really consulted him for problems.
4. No
5. No
6. It all depends on the student. If the student's bad, then the counsellor may do some good there. But if the student is good, then the counsellor keeps them in line.
7. Yes. He was really good.
8. To try to keep the students from hurting themselves, from committing suicide, to get their problems off their chest.

Student #18

1. 1. no
   2. no
   3. very likely

4. no
5. no
6. very likely

Q. Between 3 and 6, which one would be the most?

A. her reasons, 6

2. 3
3. 2 weeks ago
4. No
5. Yes
6. No. She's given me advice about college. She's helped me write letters.
7. Yes. They know more. They know what they're talking about.
8. To advise you about things.

Student #20

1. 1. no
   2. no
   3. very likely
   4. yes
   5. somewhat
   6. somewhat

Q. Between 3 and 4, which one would be most?

A. 3, because she knew what was best.

2. 5 or 6
3. just before Christmas
4. Yes, off and on

5. Yes. She can tell you what kind of person you are just by talking to you.
6. Yes. By talking to them, they give you advice which you have to know.
7. Yes
8. For advice.

Student #21

1. 1. no
   2, no
   3. yes
   4. no
   5. little bit
   6. yes. Very likely

   Q. Between 3 and 6, which one would be the most important?

   A. About equal.
2. 5
3. April
4. Yes, when I need help.
5. Yes, with college applications and she knew everything about that.
6. Yes, you always trust them.
7. Yes
8. To try to help people that don't know what to do. Advice.

Student #22

1. 1. very likely
   2. not likely
   3. somewhat likely
   4. somewhat likely
   5. somewhat likely
   6. very likely

   Q. Between 1 and 6, which would be the most likely?

   A. Because she convinced me, 6.
2. 2
3. Last week
4. One more time
5. I think so. She told me to ask some teachers for help. I'm doing better now.
6. Yes, they've heard all sorts of problems and would know all of them. They know all the subjects.
7. Yes
8. To help the students in the decisions through high school and problems that they have.

Student #23

1. 1. no
   2. no
   3. yes
   4. yes
   5. somewhat likely
   6. no

   Q. Between 3 and 4, which one would be most likely?

A. 3

2. 1

3. no answer

4. I don't know.

5. No, he didn't have a great deal of influence because I only talked to him once.

6. Yes, they explain things, work them out.

7. Yes

8. They help you find things you need, with school. If you don't like your teacher, you can go up and tell your counsellor. He can have your class changed.

Student #24

1. 1. very likely
   2. no
   3. somewhat likely
   4. somewhat likely
   5. somewhat likely
   6. somewhat likely

2. 1

3. no answer

4. Maybe

5. No, she gave me information and I didn't do it.

6. Yes, I think so. They can change your timetable. They can convince you to take courses that you don't really want to. And help you with some

problems.

7. Yes

8. To help students with problems. Somebody to talk to.

Student #25

1. 1. don't think so
   2. no
   3. Yes, she'd know what to do.
   4. I don't really feel obligated to do so.
   5. no
   6. yes
   Q. Between 3 and 6, which one would be most likely?
   A. 3
2. 3
3. About October
4. Yes, I've been seeing her.
5. Not that much. A bit. Mostly academic.
6. Yes, they help kids if they're having trouble in a course. They help get it right.
7. Yes
8. To find out if the student is having trouble and to help them out. It's usually academic, not family or that.

Student #29

1. 1. no
   2. no

3. yes, somewhat likely
4. no
5. no
6. reasoning yes, not persuasion. Very likely

2. 2 or 3
3. In September
4. No
5. Yes, during the year I wasn't very good in studying and I was not used to homework every night. So he pointed out to me how to do it most efficiently.
6. Yes, they help them a lot, with timetables and their studies.
7. Yes
8. If a student has troubles in settling down in school, not doing well in study habits, he needs guidance and they give it to them. Mostly academic reasons.

Student #28

1. 1. very likely
   2. not likely
   3. very likely
   4. not likely
   5. somewhat likely
   6. not likely

   Q. Between 3 and 5, which one would be most likely?

A. 3

2. 5
3. Since just before Christmas.
4. No
5. Yes, quite a bit. He told me a lot about college and college courses. He gave me a lot of help.
6. I wouldn't think so, no. People go to get help, but I don't think--it's not like your parents or anything. They'll listen to them if they want to. They won't if they don't want to.
7. Yes
8. To help the student get along, through high school difficulties and courses.

Student #33

1. 1. not likely
    2. not likely
    3. very likely
    4. somewhat likely
    5. no, that's not the reason
    6. reason, but not persuasion
2. Quite a few, around 5 or 6.
3. Last year
4. Yes
5. Yes, he instructed me to take a more general academic course programme.
6. I think that that would depend on the student.

Yes, I think they do. They seem to know a lot about college and university. He helped me see the aspects of each.

7. Yes

8. To have someone to talk to; for the students, if they need help in anything. I think that they see them for academic rather than personal counselling, because they're more afraid to go to a counsellor.

Student #38

1. 1. not likely
   2. not likely
   3. very likely
   4. somewhat likely
   5. somewhat likely
   6. most likely
   Q. Between 3 and 6, which one would be most likely?
   A. Because he knew what was best, 3.
2. Inaudible
3. Not asked
4. Not asked
5. Not asked
6. Yes, they know, if you asked them, what courses you should take. They help mostly with high school courses and careers.
7. Not asked
8. Not asked

Student #39

1. 1. somewhat likely
   2. not likely
   3. somewhat likely
   4. somewhat likely
   5. very likely
   6. somewhat likely
2. 7
3. October
4. No
5. Yes, he knows what I'm like, my personality and I know about his personality. So we understand each other and our interests.
6. Yes, if you have troubles with friends, teachers or parents, you have someone to come to, to spill your guts, to tell what your troubles are. They're sort of a friend, someone who can help you with your problems.
7. Yes
8. Someone who understands, someone who can really talk with. To help students in stress, family problems, friendships or even love affair or even school or even getting a job.

Student #40

1. 1. somewhat likely
   2. not likely

3. very likely
4. not likely
5. not likely
6. very likely

Q. Between 3 and 6, which one would be most likely?

A. His reasoning, 6.

2. 2 or 3
3. Level 1
4. Yes, a couple weeks ago.
5. Somewhat, to help sort out further educational plans by presenting jobs; my marks.
6. I think some students that want to listen to their suggestions.
7. Yes
8. Sort out everything, your problems. Just to help you with anything.

Student #49

1. 1. no
   2. not likely
   3. somewhat likely
   4. somewhat likely
   5. inaudible
   6. very likely
2. 5 or 6
3. About the beginning of the year.
4. Yes

5. Yes, he told me about colleges and why I could go.
6. Yes, talking with them about future plans and what you should do and kids dropping out of school--trying to talk them out of it.
7. Yes
8. To help with teacher problems and with careers and colleges.

Student #54

1. 1. not likely
   2. not likely
   3. not likely
   4. very likely
   5. not likely
   6. somewhat likely
2. 1
3. Last year
4. No
5. Not really. I don't see a counsellor much. The only reason I see a counsellor is for courses.
6. Yes, they can make or break a student. They, through their experience, know what's best. The problems tend to be somewhat alike and, because of their experience, they could help.
7. Yes, very helpful
8. I don't think it's for academic. A vice-principal

can do it. It's mostly for kids to talk to, to get it off their chest.

Student #55

1. 1. not likely
   2. not likely
   3. somewhat likely
   4. somewhat likely
   5. somewhat likely. Probably this one
   6. somewhat likely
2. 10
3. September
4. Yes
5. It makes sense. If it doesn't go against my values and not too contrary to my beliefs. I knew what he said was the best thing. It wasn't what he wanted me to do. I wanted to avoid trouble.
6. Yes, they know what they're doing. They can help you out. That's their job--to help out.
8. Help you; advise; make suggestions. Students then take what they want.
7. Yes

Student #59

1. 1. somewhat likely
   2. not likely
   3. very likely
   4. not likely

5. not likely
6. somewhat likely

2. 6
3. Half-way through the school year.
4. Yes
5. Somewhat, to a certain extent. The way he puts things, he sees things differently than I conceive them.
6. Depends on the individual. Mostly they do. The way they talk to you. If they go around in a nice, easy way, they'll get more response to it.
7. Yes
8. To see through a student if they're having problems they'd like to talk over. Problems, at school. Just to sit down with someone who will listen.

Student #58

1. 1. not likely
   2. not likely
   3. somewhat likely
   4. somewhat likely
   5. not likely
   6. very likely
2. 5
3. About a month ago.
4. Just yesterday
5. No, I came for advice. I was talking, he was

listening. Then, he gave me advice and then it's my decision what to do. If I feel what I'm doing is what I want, then, I'll do it.

7. Yes

8. To help people who have problems to discuss. So they can give adivce or just be there so they can talk to them. You're asking for counselling, not a teacher--so they shouldn't tell me what to do, like a teacher.

APPENDIX 6

SCORE KEY FOR THE TWO WRITTEN INSTRUMENTS

SCORING THE SOCIAL POWER INVENTORY

Circle the letters below which you circled on each item of the questionnaire:

Item No.	Expert	Legitimate	Coercive	Reward	Referent	Information
1			B	A		
2					B	A
3	B			A		
4				B		A
5		B			A	
6	A		B			
7		A	B			
8	A			B		
9	B				A	
10		B				A
11				A	B	
12	A	B				
13			B		A	
14			B	A		
15			B			A
16		A			B	
17	B		A			
18		B		A		
19		A				B
20	B				A	
21		A	B			
22				A		B
23	B	A				
24	A					B
25			A			B
26		B		A		
27			A		B	
28				B	A	
29					B	A
30	B					A

Total number of letters circled in each column:

Expert	Legitimate	Coercive	Reward	Referent	Information

APPENDIX 7

RELEASE FORMS FROM THE AUTHORS OF THE SOCIAL POWER INVENTORY

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR: David W. Jamieson

TITLE OF QUESTIONNAIRE: SOCIAL POWER INVENTORY

COPYRIGHT DATE: 1972

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(SIGNED) David W Jamieson

PERMANENT ADDRESS

2856 Glendon Ave
Los Angeles
Calif. 90064

DATED 1/30/79

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR: KENNETH W. THOMAS

TITLE OF QUESTIONNAIRE: SOCIAL POWER INVENTORY

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(SIGNED) Kenneth W. Thomas

PERMANENT ADDRESS

32CC Gowen Ave
Philadelphia, PA
19119

DATED 2/6/79

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR: RALPH KILMANN

TITLE OF QUESTIONNAIRE: SOCIAL POWER INVENTORY

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(SIGNED) Ralph H Kilmann

PERMANENT ADDRESS

435 Ailenberry Dr
Pittsburgh, PA
15237

DATED 1/31/79